The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1900.

The Week.

The House of Representatives passed last week, by a vote of 172 to 161, the bill imposing a tariff upon Porto Rico. Six Republicans refused to support the measure. Two other Republicans who stood with them in opposition, and four Democrats who would have voted on the same side, were absent, and pairs could not be arranged for them. If they had been present, the division would have been 172 to 167. Four Democrats voted with the Republicans. If they had stood with their party, the bill would have been beaten, in a House with every member accounted for, by 168 yeas to 171 nays. The success of the measure was thus due to the reinforcement of the bulk of the Republicans by two Democrats from Louisiana, one from California, and one (Sibley) from Pennsylvania. The two Southerners and the Westerner frankly confessed that they voted with the Republicans for a tariff on a starving people because they were afraid that their constituents would suffer from the competition of our new possessions. The bill now goes to the Senate. The duty of all who have fought it while it was before the House is to keep up that fight. Indeed, they should now redouble their efforts to avert the national disgrace involved in the enactment of the bill into a law. The contention should be made in behalf of the national honor. Questions of Constitutional construction are interesting subjects for discussion, but the issue of good faith in redeeming our pledges to a suffering people is the fundamental one.

One of the most grotesque features of a debate which has called out a rather unusual amount of cant, has been the claim that the Porto Ricans would starve unless they were heavily taxed. No doubt, it was said, they would like to be relieved of taxation; but it was absolutely impossible for us to carry out our benevolent intentions without making the Porto Ricans furnish the money for it. We propose to "give" them good roads, public schools, improved police, etc., which will require the creation of many offices, to be held by Americans not born in Porto Rico. These officers must of course be paid, and it is thought to be highly unreasonable and shamefully ungrateful for the Porto Ricans to object to being taxed for the purpose of paying them. It was gravely stated in Congress that, while the American people were a generous people, they had not the slightest disposition to tax themselves for the benefit of their new subjects. In fact, "Destiny" had once more to assume responsibility. It was very sad that the Porto Ricans were suffering; but, in the first place, we were bound to make them pay for the process of benevolent assimilation; and, in the second place, we were going to be extremely careful that no Porto Rican claims should be allowed to have weight against American interests. Unfortunately for the success of this appeal to the absolute necessities of the case, it was pointed out that the people of the United States had always regularly taxed themselves for the support of Territorial governments, and had never regarded it as too great a strain on their generosity. In Arizona, for instance, there is a Governor whose salary is paid by the federal Government; and there are other Territorial officers supported in the same way. There are four judges, receiving $12,000 a year, with provision for their clerks and bailiffs. There are numerous other contributions made by the general Government for Territorial purposes, at least $40,000 being appropriated for education.

The action of the House of Representatives on Friday in voting, after only forty minutes' debate, to put more than $2,000,000 in the President's hands, "to be used for the government and benefit of Porto Rico," as he may think best, can be described only as an outbreak of hysteria. It is three months since Congress met and Mr. McKinley urged the immediate doing of our duty by this new possession, and, after letting the whole winter pass without doing anything, the Republican managers suddenly propose to put a great sum of money in the President's hands, to be disbursed in the island at his pleasure. This is no decent way to conduct a government. The system of voting money out of the Treasury by the millions, to be spent at the discretion of the Executive, is all wrong, and ought to be abandoned. As regards the principle of the bill, that, too, is wrong. Porto Rico asks justice, not charity; the keeping of our national pledges to give her freedom of trade with us—not grants from our Treasury as to a poor relation. The island must be helped, and some appropriation for its benefit ought to be made, but what the situation demands most is self-help, and that can come only from giving her the rights of trade which were promised her by the representative of our Government, a year and a half ago.

The McKinley Administration proposes to give Porto Rico, when it belongs to the United States, worse treatment than the last previous Republican Administration gave the island when it belonged to Spain. The President is forcing the passage of a law imposing 15 per cent. of Dingley tariff rates upon the Porto Ricans. On the 31st of July, 1891, Mr. Harrison issued a proclamation announcing the consummation of a reciprocity arrangement between the United States and Spain, by which sugar, molasses, coffee, and hides were to be imported from Porto Rico into the United States free from any duty whatever, while a list of 75 articles produced or manufactured in the United States were to be imported into Porto Rico free of duty. Is it any wonder that Representative Crumpacker of Indiana, who stood out to the last for treating Porto Rico as well now as we did ten years ago, finds himself the most popular man in the State which repudiates McKinley with scorn?

Secretary Root is left in a most unenviable position, both as public man and lawyer, by the definite statements now made in Washington that he himself drew, or, at least, approved, the bill taxing Porto Rico. One such statement comes directly from a member of the Ways and Means Committee, in search of a scapegoat. As a matter of political expediency, or elementary morality, Mr. Root's action needs only to be compared with his own words of last December, to show that he has made a huge blunder, which, for a politician, is worse than a crime. And as a great lawyer especially chosen to give the President expert legal advice on the whole question of insular government, what a humiliating thing it is for him that a country attorney from Connecticut should have had to instruct him in the Constitution! The truth is, however, that the pretence of laying a duty on Porto Rican goods solely in order to get a decision from the Supreme Court is the sheerest humbug. A case is already on the calendar involving the whole question. These pretended Constitutional scruples are transparent after-thoughts. The real anxiety was to find out, not if the Constitution extended to Porto Rico automatically, but if the President could be brought to his knees by Protection, *ex proprio vigore*. It is clear now that he can be.

Senator Davis has actually introduced amendments giving Porto Rico free trade, by the process of extending to the island such provisions of the Constitution as regulate taxation and prescribe its uniformity. Mr. Davis is a good lawyer, and his plan is cleverly designed to prevent a case coming before the Supreme Court. If the Republicans are wise, they will adopt this or some similar method of keeping the mat-

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ter out of the courts pending the campaign. Otherwise, all their platforms and speeches will have to be written with an *if*. "This is the Republican policy *if* the Supreme Court does not declare it unconstitutional." What sort of battle-cry would that be? Senator Davis is one of Mr. McKinley's right-hand men, and his amendments ought to be taken as representing the Administration's policy—that is, its latest policy: it has a new one every day. We are the more inclined to believe this because we observe that the chairman of the State Republican committee of Indiana has flatly told the Executive—*i. e.*, Senator Hanna—that Indiana is lost to the party unless the Porto Rican policy is reversed.

The project for our buying the Danish West India Islands will not gain much strength from the recent struggle over the Porto Rican tariff bill. Yet we hear from time to time that the negotiations are still going on. The latest report is that an offer of $3,500,000 has been made to Denmark, conditioned, however, upon the willingness of Congress to appropriate the money. No reason has been advanced for our having the islands at all, if they were offered to us for nothing; or even if Denmark would give us a bonus for taking them, as she could well afford to do. A more worthless lot of real estate it would be hard to find, except in the great Libyan Desert; and as for the naval advantages which are supposed to belong to the islands, they no longer exist for us since we have Porto Rico, their nearest neighbor. It ought to give the Republicans a feeling of goneness when they ask themselves what kind of tariff they shall enact for the Danish Islands. Santa Cruz produces both sugar and oranges. Although the quantity she is capable of producing is smaller than that of Porto Rico, the principle is the same. If the islands were bought by us, we should have to fight the whole battle over again, with the chances of finding McKinley on both sides of the question.

Prof. John B. Moore of Columbia University contributed to the *Times* of Sunday an article on the Isthmian Canal and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty which ought to have a pretty wide circulation throughout the country, and especially among Senators and Representatives in Congress. He reviews the whole subject from the standpoint of international law, and reaches the general conclusion that the pending treaty ought to be ratified. He holds that the policy of a neutralized canal such as the treaty provides for is the historic policy of the United States, and that the opposing theory, rampant in the Hepburn report, is a new conception, in conflict with that historic policy; that if the Clayton-Bulwer treaty were abrogated, the situation would not be materially altered, since the neutralization of the canal is guaranteed by various other treaties; and that the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, while adhering to the policy of neutralization, gives important advantages to the United States in the way of local control and protection against lawlessness and disorder, which we should not have under preëxisting arrangements. The treaties which Nicaragua has made with foreign Powers, guaranteeing equality of rights and privileges in the use of any canal across her territory, are enumerated with their respective dates, all of which would be in full force even if the Clayton-Bulwer treaty were abrogated. Such treaties exist with Spain, France, Great Britain, and Italy; and the question naturally arises, What would these Powers say or do if the principles of the Hepburn report were sought to be carried into effect by us either with or without the consent of Nicaragua? We are now seeking to maintain the rights of trade secured to us by treaty with China, against the possible encroachment of those European Powers which have effected lodgment on her coast. How does that situation differ from the one which has been created in Nicaragua by similar treaties? The only way to set aside those treaties is for us to annex Nicaragua by force, and to defy the Powers whose rights with her we propose to nullify.

Mr. Isaac Seligman has pointed out a defect in the pending currency bill. Section 2 provides that United States notes when redeemed are to go into the reserve fund until exchanged for gold, and, while there, are to be counted with the gold in making up the reserve of $150,000,000 which is not to be exceeded. If the gold in the reserve fund should fall below $100,000,000, the Treasury might sell $50,000,000 worth of bonds, and the reserve fund would then consist of (say) $95,000,000 of gold previously held, $50,000,000 gold paid in for the bonds, and $55,000,000 of notes redeemed through the action of the reserve fund, making $200,000,000. But, under the "maximum" reserve provision, $50,000,000 of the notes would have to be turned over to the general fund of the Treasury, becoming applicable to any of the purposes of the government. Should expenditures exceed revenue, these notes would certainly be paid out, and almost as certainly be presented for redemption in gold, and the "endless chain" would again make trouble. Bonds could be sold, as bonds were sold before; but, while insolvency was thus averted, panic and disaster were not. In Mr. Seligman's opinion the insertion of the words, "together with the redeemed notes held for use as provided in this section," will vitiate much of the good effect which this law is expected to accomplish. On this point there should be no room for any possible uncertainty or difference of opinion, and if it is too late to change the bill before it passes, it should be immediately amended by removing the dangerous provision for counting notes as part of the gold reserve.

Boycotting has reached an acute stage in Chicago. It grows out of the strike in the building trades. A few weeks ago the dealers in plumbing supplies entered into an agreement with the building contractors' council not to sell to any plumber who had not signed the rules of that council, which renounces the demands of the plumbers' union. Now the plumbers' union has voted that no union plumber in the United States shall handle material sold by these Chicago dealers. To avoid this boycott the dealers say that they will remove all the distinctive marks from their material, so that the boycotters will be obliged to keep track of all the lead pipe that is shipped by them to any part of the country. This would add greatly to the expense of enforcing the boycott, and would lead in many cases to boycotting the wrong goods. It is said that the sales of plumbing material in Chicago have already fallen off to such an extent that the business is now conducted at a loss, and that the end is not in sight.

The battle by boycott must come to an end some time, by the exhaustion of one or the other party, perhaps both; and then it will be necessary to go back to the beginning and settle the dispute by arbitration or by the surrender of one of them. The workingmen are trying to enforce a rule that nobody shall get a job unless he belongs to the union, and they will admit to the union only such as they choose. In other words, they are imitating their superiors in many parts of the country in seeking to form a Labor Trust, intending to subdue the employers one by one. The latter, seeing that each one must endure a strike supported by assessments levied on the employees of the others, naturally unite to resist. A strike is followed by a lockout, and then a boycott is succeeded by an anti-boycott. It will be strange if the sequel does not embrace rioting, murder, and incendiarism, as was the case in the great street-car boycott at Cleveland last year. All this teaches the lesson that the boycott is not a remedy for anything, and that it only aggravates the evils it is intended to cure, by forcing neutrals to join in a quarrel in which they have no interest, and where they can only incur loss.

The attempt to introduce the principle of municipal ownership in Boston has met with disaster from the obstacles which must always hamper such attempts. It seems to be impossible in the government of a large city by uni-

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versal suffrage to prevent offices from being regarded as political spoils. It is hard enough to contend against the theory in small communities, and the same is certainly true in national affairs; but with the vast and heterogeneous population of our largest cities the struggle against corruption is far more difficult. Mayor Quincy was not deterred by the warnings of experience, and ventured on a number of these socialistic experiments. He established a city printing-office, a city ice department, an electrical construction division, and a general city repair-shop. Mayor Hart finds that these bureaus are too expensive a luxury for a city as heavily in debt as Boston. When the market price of ice was $3 a ton, it cost the city nearly $60 a ton to procure ice through the municipal department. The printing done for the city at its office is found to cost from 20 to 50 per cent. more than when done by contract. The electrical and repair departments showed the same results; in one case work, for which a private contractor submitted a guaranteed estimate of $40, costing the city $300 when done by its own bureau. The heads of these bureaus found that if they discharged men for improper conduct or inefficiency, some outside influence was potent enough to reinstate them, and it is safe to say that, until the politicians retire from business, influence of this kind will continue to be potent. Mayor Hart has abolished two of these departments, and the saving promises to be so considerable that the others will have hard work to justify their continued existence.

The financial world has lately been startled by revelations of rottenness in the affairs of the Third Avenue Railroad Company which have reduced the market value of its shares to less than 50, from a maximum last year of about 240. This maximum, of course, was largely speculative, but the stock was, no doubt, fairly worth 150 before it fell among thieves and was stripped and left bleeding as we now see it. A suspicion has been growing during the past week that, in the wrecking of this property, Tammany Hall has had very much the same share as it had in that of the Erie Railway in the time of Tweed and Sweeny. Now we learn from some correspondence that passed between Mr. John D. Crimmins and Mr. A. J. Elias last summer that the former, viewing with his practised eye as a contractor, a shareholder, and a politician, the work of changing the motive power of this road, perceived that there was great waste of the company's resources, and inferred that some political party was at the bottom of it. He communicated his suspicions by letter to Mr. Elias, the Vice-President of the company, and added: "I doubt very much if there has ever been a public work or a work for a corporation where there was so much loitering as there is on this work." Mr. Elias made use of the *argumentum ad hominem* in his reply, saying that there was as much if not more loitering on the Eighth Avenue line, which Mr. Crimmins built, than on the line which Mr. Crimmins had ventured to criticise, but he (Mr. Elias) would give prompt attention to any want of diligence on the part of the contractors. The fact that the contractors were allowed a commission of 15 per cent. on the amount spent for labor would serve to account for the loitering and the prolongation of the work; but the question is yet to be answered, Why was such a contract made, why were these contractors employed, and why were they allowed to loiter and prolong the time for completing their job? Some persons say that these contractors were Tammany men, and that they alone could control the permits for street opening, and hence that their employment was a necessity; in other words, that the company was blackmailed. This, if true, does not excuse the officers of the company. It rather adds something to the gravity of the charge against them of betraying the interests of their shareholders that they did not resist the attempted blackmail, and appeal to the courts, the public, and the Legislature for protection.

The withdrawal of Lord Rosebery from the Scottish Liberal Association, of which he has been President for twenty years, is the most considerable event that the Boer war has produced in English politics. The withdrawal was caused by the dissatisfaction of the Scotch Liberals with Lord Rosebery's position in reference to the war, which has been that of a rather ardent supporter of Mr. Chamberlain's position. In other words, he not merely sustained the Government in carrying on the war, but he believed that the Government was right in taking the steps which antedated the declaration of war by the Boer Government. Here he was in conflict with Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, Sir William Harcourt, John Morley, James Bryce, and nearly the whole Liberal party. It does not follow that he will join the Conservatives or the Unionists, but his withdrawal from the Liberals at any time, for any reason, could not fail to be an event of importance.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer estimates the deficit in the revenue for this year and next at £60,000,000. This deficit is to be met by increasing the taxes to the extent of £12,317,000, by taking £4,640,000 from the sinking-fund for terminable annuities, and by borrowing £43,000,000. The income-tax is to be increased one-half, making it a shilling in the pound, or 5 per cent.; 2d. a pound is to be added to the tea duty, 6d. a gallon to that on spirits, a shilling a barrel on beer, 4d. a pound on tobacco, 6d. a pound on cigars, and a shilling on the stamp-tax on certain brokers' contracts. The suggestion was made that the additional revenue might be easily obtained by a tax on sugar, but it was not listened to, and half the increase in taxation will fall on the incomes of the classes which have most favored the extension of the British Empire by force of arms. As the war may cost twice the estimated amount before it is concluded, the burden of taxation bids fair to be heavier than it has been during the memory of most Englishmen now living. The country is now highly prosperous, but when hard times recur, the taxes will be severely felt. It has been intimated that a large indemnity might be exacted from the Dutch Republics, but Sir William Harcourt pointed out that the problem of getting such an indemnity paid was not to be easily solved.

Russia's steady advance in Asia is marked by one mile-stone more in what appears to be her practical absorption of Persia. By the usual means of railway concessions and a guaranteed loan, Russian control of Persian trade and government is now assured; and the secular desire of Russia for a seaport on the Indian Ocean will be gratified as soon as the rails can be laid to Bander Abbas on the Gulf of Oman. This stealthy march forward, on the line of England's communications, as it were, could not have been so easily accomplished but for British preoccuption in South Africa. The Czar has professed strict neutrality and great friendliness, and protested that he could never think of taking advantage of England's African embarrassments; but his agents have nevertheless pressed quietly forward in Afghanistan and in Persia. The inhabitants of the latter country are represented as eager for a Russian protectorate. "When will the Russians come? When will the White Czar deliver us?" These are said, by a Russian officer in Teheran, to be the eager questions of the natives. He added, in his report to the Minister of War, that "one division of infantry and a couple of Cossack regiments would suffice to keep in check the whole of Persia." But there is another side to the extension of Russian military rule. In Sebastopol, three weeks ago, forty-three officers of the Russian navy were put on trial for corruption and bribery, in connection with the purchase of supplies for the Black Sea fleet. At almost the same time was confirmed the sentence of degradation and exile, for embezzlement, of Gen. Ilovaisky and several Cossack officers. Peculation has been historically the cancer of absolutism. The Russian armies were almost paralyzed in the Crimean and Turkish wars by dishonest administration; and, as the empire extends, opportunities for corruption multiply.

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DEEDS, NOT WORDS.

President McKinley's speech at the Ohio Society's banquet in this city on Saturday evening was a very thesaurus of phrases which may be applied, like so many blisters, to his own conduct in the past two weeks. "We must choose between manly doing and base desertion." Who says this? The man whom the whole country has seen running away from his own words like a frightened rabbit. "Partisanship can hold few of us against solemn public duty." But Mr. McKinley is himself one of those few. He could read in Monday's Chicago *Times-Herald*, edited not by an enemy, but by a personal friend and benefactor, not by a Democrat or Mugwump, but by a stanch Republican, the following truthful account of what the President of the United States did when partisanship came into collision with what he himself had declared to be "solemn public duty" to Porto Rico.

> "A majority of Republicans were opposed to the principle of the bill and faithful to the thought and purpose of the President's message. The defeat of the bill was imminent and the prestige of the Republican majority in the House was in peril.
> "Then the President was appealed to. It was represented to him that nothing could save the party from humiliating division and defeat but some sign that he receded from the recommendation of his message. The leaders of the party were permitted to suggest that he had changed his mind. But this was not sufficient to bring the recalcitrants into line. The President was again appealed to, and, under pressure from the party leaders in the House, he *personally urged several Representatives* to support the bill, so as to preserve an unbroken Republican front in the House.
> "Thus was the grievous blunder committed."

In what atmosphere, surcharged with adulation, must the President live not to know what the people are saying of his lamentable display of moral cowardice? The country is ringing with it. Republicans are torn between rage and disgust over his ignominious retreat. And yet he is so armed in triple brass of egotism that he dares, on the heels of his own humiliating exhibition of weakness and recreancy, to prate once more of "duty"! A runaway colonel might with as good grace exhort his regiment to be brave. If it could ever have been said that the President's words were half-battles, it must now be admitted that they are whole defeats. He ought to beware how he excites the laughter or scorn of his hearers by performing again on his tinkling cymbal of "solemn public duty."

The truth is, Mr. McKinley mistakes the time of day. He talks as if it were still February, 1899, instead of March, 1900. His pious descriptions of the blessings we were going to bestow on our national "wards" were all very well a year ago, but now we are translating his fine words into action. To-day it is *res non verba;* and what is the thing we see? "It is not possible," gravely asserts President McKinley, "that 75 millions of American freemen are unable to establish liberty and justice and good government in our new possessions." That may pass for a belated platitude; but the actual situation is, that American freemen are trying to establish justice in Porto Rico —and their President blocks the way. There is no chance for a quibble here. Mr. McKinley himself laid down officially the proper way in which to establish justice in this particular one of our new possessions. He was on record. He was committed morally. Yet, with the country eager to support him, with his party press appealing to him to live up to his own words, with Congress bursting with desire to do justice to Porto Rico, he deliberately chose to play the part of an oppressor. And then he added insult to injury by coming to New York to declare: "The liberators will never become the oppressors!"

The Spanish language has a word which it applies to such grandiloquent hypocrisy. *Música, música,* Spaniards cry, when they hear a man trying to cover up foul deeds with fair words. This is the indignant and scornful cry which will resound throughout Porto Rico when the natives read of the President's betrayal, followed by his flood of noble sentiments. Already the dispatches show the consternation approaching despair which reigns in this particular one of the islands we wrested from Spain. Our Governor-General told Congress that, so far, American occupation had been a curse to the natives. But they had held on in hope that, at last, we would keep faith with them. What must their feelings be when they discover that the President of the United States has broken his plighted word? If they were strong enough, they would undoubtedly take up arms against American rule, and they would be justified in doing it if the American Revolution was justified. It is of no use for the President to affirm that "there can be no imperialism." The Porto Ricans know better; they are suffering from it.

In one respect, the President's speech is a good sign. Like his recommendation of a $2,000,000 appropriation for the Porto Ricans, it shows that he is in a panic. The open revolt of conscience Republicans, and the open exultation of the Democrats, have revealed to him his monumental blunder. He sees thousands of votes endangered; and, with Mr. McKinley, a vote imperilled means a solemn obligation to retain it if possible. But what he must see is that no halfway measures will do. His message asking for $2,000,000 is already seen by the country to be only a small trick. There is neither statesmanship nor charity in it; it does not touch the root of the trouble as law, and, as a gift, would be only a form of pauperization. No, the only thing for Mr. McKinley to do is to take Mr. Kohlsaat's advice, admit that he has made a dreadful mistake, turn square about, and urge Congress to give the Porto Ricans free trade. This might seem an awkward performance for the President, after what has passed, but we are sure that he would be able to say that his conduct throughout had been straightforward and consistent. At any rate, inconsistent or not, ruin lies for him in any other course.

THE GOVERNMENT OF HAWAII.

These are cheerful days for the Democratic members of Congress, as compared with the sorrowful yesterdays when their blundering policy made them the butt of their opponents' ridicule. It is now their turn to laugh at the embarrassments in which the Administration has involved the Republican party; embarrassments so great as to cause a Republican Representative to beg the Opposition not to make them unbearable. The debate on the bill establishing a Territorial government in Hawaii, which has finally passed the Senate, gave Senator Tillman of South Carolina an opportunity to expose some Republican inconsistencies, which he improved with unfeigned delight. As he observed, when he got his adversaries on the prongs of his pitchfork, he did not care which side they took, and on the present occasion he had them "right there." If, as the bill in its original form proposed, the government of Hawaii was to be placed in the hands of an oligarchy of the white races, the Republicans ought to recognize the wisdom of the South Carolina law which aimed at a similar result. If the policy was right in one case it could not be condemned in the other; and if it was wrong in South Carolina, it must be wrong in Hawaii. Accordingly, Senator Tillman proposed that the South Carolina law be adopted word for word in the organic law of Hawaii. This amendment the Republicans could not, for very shame, adopt; but Senator Tillman's exposures were not without effect.

It was somewhat unguardedly admitted by the Republicans, at the beginning of the debate, that apprehension was felt that other people besides Americans might get control of the government. As Senators Platt and Cullom stated, there was danger that the "Anglo-Saxon element" might be overruled. The population of the islands being now estimated at 150,000, and the Americans numbering only between 3,000 and 4,000, this danger could not be disregarded. There has been "friction" between the Americans and the other inhabitants, and, in the words of Senator Platt, the other elements "may conceive the idea that they can run the government by votes as against the Anglo-Saxon people and the Anglo-Saxon idea, and they will be liable to be influenced by demagogues—people who still hold, in a way, to the old monarchy—and there is great danger that all Anglo-Saxon influence there may be overturned." Accordingly the bill, which was

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evidently concocted by the ruling oligarchy in Hawaii, provided not only a qualification of intelligence, but also a property qualification for voters. No one was to vote at all who could not read, write, and speak either the English or Hawaiian language—although the Germans number 1,500, the Portuguese 15,000, the Chinese 21,000, and the Japanese 24,000; and no one was to vote for members of the proposed Senate who had not, in addition to this qualification, real property valued at $1,000, or an income of $600 a year. No person, moreover, could be a member of either house of the Legislature who did not possess a certain amount of property. With these precautions, with a governor appointed from among the residents of the islands, with the present judiciary maintained, and with the selection of nearly all the officers by the governor, the dominant element felt that their position would be reasonably secure. As the former Attorney-General of Hawaii remarked, "Unless some means were adopted to control the native vote, the Territorial Legislature would probably pass quickly into the hands of the natives"; and "even the Portuguese, as against the Anglo-Saxon, could exclude the latter from taking any part in legislation." The original bill was unquestionably well calculated to prevent this result.

This well-laid scheme, however, has been sadly marred by the Senate; and Senator Morgan, who had elaborated it in conjunction with the Hawaiian rulers, now frantically shouts that he would advise the people of Hawaii to remain as they are for a hundred years rather than accept such a plan of government as the Senate has created. In point of fact, the revelations made concerning the conditions under which "contract labor" prevails in Hawaii rendered the bill odious. The statutes of Hawaii have provided that any person refusing to serve his master shall be "compelled" to carry out his agreement of service; and that if he shall refuse, he shall be imprisoned at hard labor until he "consents." If he "consents," and does not serve satisfactorily, he shall be fined, and imprisoned at hard labor until his fine is paid. As evidence was produced showing that in some cases the contract laborers were "docked" of half their pay of $12.50 a month—without board—such fines might involve imprisonment for life at hard labor. The Senate appears to have made thorough work in prohibiting this abuse, and, getting in the mood for securing some of the recognized rights of American citizens, it struck out the property qualification required of voters for members of the Senate. The courts, instead of remaining in the hands of the present Government, are to be assimilated to other Territorial courts, and it is worthy of notice that the judges are to be paid by the United States, although no concession of this kind has been thought admissible in Porto Rico. Hawaii is to have a Delegate in Congress, like other Territories. It is to have the same freedom of trade as the other Territories. In short, as the bill leaves the Senate, it practically establishes a Territorial government on familiar lines, and seriously interrupts the plans of the American oligarchy to maintain the government in their own hands. It also paves the way for two Senators and a Representative in Congress, and three votes in the Electoral College, at some future time.

COUNTING THE COST.

Following the rejoicings in London over the relief of Ladysmith, the warning voice of the paymaster is heard in its appropriate corner of the House of Commons. What he tells ought to have a sobering effect after the effervescence of the good news passes off. The naval estimates were presented by Mr. Goschen a few days ago. They call for $42,000,000 for new battle-ships and cruisers, the entire naval expense for the year 1900-'01 being placed at $150,000,000. Mr. Goschen said that Russia was preparing to expend $21,000,000 for new construction, and France nearly the same amount. In order to keep England up to the mark she had hitherto fixed for herself, she must make her expenditure equal to that of any two of her rivals. In this way the sum of $42,000,000 was reached.

Two weeks ago the Under Secretary for War made a preliminary statement of the needs of his department. He said that the present regular force consisted of 109,000 regulars in the United Kingdom, to which he proposed to add 30,000 immediately. Then he proposed to put under training the present volunteer forces, amounting to 328,000, and to add 50,000 more to their number, so as to have 517,000 men trained to arms or undergoing training in the course of the next few months. "Personally," he said, "I believe the figure will approach more nearly 600,000 men than 500,000." Mr. Campbell-Bannerman asked for some estimate of the expense of this enormous increase of the British land forces which, if carried into effect, would approach the magnitude of the great Continental armies. He insisted that the question before the country was one of policy rather than of armament, because the policy to be pursued always fixes the measure of the armament. If the policy is one of aggression, the army and navy must be made to correspond with it. "I ask," he said, "that whatever we do, we shall not, in our realization of the facts now before us in South Africa, in our discovery of the difficulties we have to meet there, rush into some great project of military development, which I believe would be the very worst thing that could happen to our country." At the same time he acknowledged that the proposals of the Government were much more moderate than the advice given by the public prints.

On Thursday the war estimates were presented to the House. They are even more moderate than those which the Under Secretary had foreshadowed. They provide for an increase of the establishment to 430,000 men, and a total net expenditure of $307,000,000, against an establishment of 184,853 men, and an expenditure of $103,000,000, as originally voted for the current financial year, showing an increase of 245,147 in the number of men, and of $204,000,000 in the money expenditure. The foregoing figures for the current year do not include the supplementary estimates of October and February for the present Boer war. They are for the future permanent establishment of the British army. Added to the naval estimates presented by Mr. Goschen a few days ago, they mount up to $450,000,000 for fighting purposes alone. And this comes within seven months after the meeting of the Hague conference, which was called for the purpose of securing a reduction of military and naval expenditure, or a cessation in the increase thereof. And now England is on the eve of trebling her military expenditure and adding many millions to her naval.

Of course this wild plunge, if taken, will be because of the war in South Africa, and for no other reason. The Boers, being on the ground and the first to take the field, had secured a very advantageous position, and were thus enabled to make their men count two or three for one. So when the British dashed against the Boer fortifications they were hurled back several times with severe loss. England's enemies on the Continent began to prick up their ears and ask themselves whether this was not a good time to reopen the Egyptian question, or the Chinese question, or some other question in some quarter of the globe. The British public began to grow nervous. There was a sudden overhauling of the War Department by the newspapers, and a demand for reasons why these Boers had been allowed to get in a position of such superiority at the outset of the war. Public opinion, which, one year ago, would have killed any scheme for an increase of the army, and trampled under foot any ministry which should have adopted that policy, is now favorable to, nay demands, a greater increase than the ministry brings forward; and this increase costs three times the money that the British taxpayer is accustomed to spend. So we see for the thousandth time that when a nation takes up the sword, it never knows how or when it may lay it down. It may be led, in its own despite, into paths of folly which, in its sane moments and under ordinary conditions, it would have regarded with scorn, and even with horror.

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Undoubtedly the new armament of England will be made a reason and an excuse for the United States adopting the same policy. It will be said that, with a force of half a million men, England can send an army to take possession of our precious Nicaragua Canal. That will be made an argument, not for ratifying the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, but for adding to our army and building twice as many fortifications on the line of the canal as we originally intended. But there is an element in our politics that is able to offer an effective opposition to a large standing army. It is composed of the workingmen's organizations, and there has been evidence lately that this element is making itself felt in the military committees of Congress. Let us hope that it may solemnly warn Congressmen that it will vote for no man who votes for increasing our military establishment. Reorganize it, make it as efficient as you please, but if you would prevent wars, prevent the army from growing in numbers.

THE REUNITED IRISH PARTY.

In the manifesto of the recently elected chairman of the Irish party in the House of Commons, the occasion and aim of the reunion of the Irish factions which have been quarrelling and helpless for nine years past are clearly to be read, in the lines or between them. Much is made of the extremity in which England was thought to be a month ago. That was Ireland's opportunity. No man could tell, said Mr. Redmond to his fellow-Irishmen, what might not be accomplished by a resolute and united body of eighty Irish members in "the greatest crisis in the memory of living man" which had "arisen in the affairs of the Empire." The great British successes in South Africa have already taken most of the pith out of that argument. But the need of doing something to restore the confidence of the Irish people in their representatives at Westminster, and to set flowing again the contributions of Irishmen all over the world, remains the chief reason for burying the bitter quarrels. Mr. Redmond frankly laid great stress upon this motive, and asked for subscriptions to "the Sessional Fund of the Irish Parliamentary party."

Many gibes and sneers have been called out by this appeal for funds. They are, however, both unfounded and vulgar. As long as members are not paid, and as long as Irish nationalists send, and must send, men of small means to represent them in Parliament, it is entirely proper that their support, while in attendance upon the House, should be provided for. O'Connell used to receive such support—his "rent," as it was half-humorously, half-tauntingly called. For this he was exposed to many Tory insults, which, of course, he repaid with interest. But there could really be no doubt about the propriety of his receiving money from his constituents. Greville, who was, at first at least, no friend to O'Connell, said that the funds put at his disposal were "a tribute nobly paid, and nobly earned." The real question is, not whether the Irish members should be maintained, but whether their present programme promises any substantial good to those who send them to London and support them there.

The answer to be found in the manifesto is not wholly explicit. It may be doubted if the Irish party speaks its whole mind in it. Irish Home Rule is referred to only casually, and as a kind of dream not officially abandoned. What Mr. Redmond definitely promises to work for is further land legislation for the relief of Irish farmers, and some measure of University education for Catholic Ireland. These demands are shrewdly made. Lord Salisbury has already gone further in legislation against Irish landlords than Mr. Gladstone ever dared or was able to go. So Mr. Redmond's appeal is *ex concessis*. He says to the Government, You have admitted the principle; you have gone half-way towards carrying it out; now go the whole way, and give us "the universal establishment of compulsory purchase of an occupying proprietary." As for a Catholic University, Mr. Balfour argued stoutly last year for a Government grant to establish one or more such institutions. Here again, therefore, Mr. Redmond is ploughing with Conservative oxen.

Behind this outward and avowed programme, lie deeper questions, harder to answer. Is the Irish people substantially united in support of its Parliamentary representatives? Is it heartily committed to political agitation as the best means of securing what it wants? There is good reason to doubt whether either of these questions can be answered by a round affirmative. At one extreme, there is the literary party of Young Ireland—the Celtic School—Kelts, they prefer to spell themselves. They are distinctly languid as respects the political remedy. They propose to witch and wheedle Englishmen with their indigenous poetry and romance and drama. An outsider might doubt whether their instrument is better fitted to placate than to infuriate, but at any rate they believe in it. At the other end of the line is the physical-force party. This remains supremely indifferent, really contemptuous, in the presence of Irish Parliamentory reunion. Here, for example, is the ominous note sounded by the *United Irishman:*

"Day by day Parliamentarianism is becoming more discredited by the people whom it befooled for over twenty years. The picture of 40,000 farmers meeting and beating the forces of the British Empire has imprinted itself upon the brain of the Irish nation.

"The burgher with his rifle guarding the land of his fathers appeals more powerfully to the Irishman than the member of Parliament with the begging-bag, suffering for his country in the House of Commons. Between unity and extinction our Parliamentarians did not hesitate. Between unity and starvation they did not falter for an instant in their choice. As the *Evening Herald*, Mr. Redmond's mouthpiece, explains, 'unity' was necessary because 'funds have only empty boxes, American support has become estranged, and at home subscriptions for any purpose died a sudden death.' 'This state of affairs,' adds our ingenious contemporary, 'could not continue.'

"As to the future of Irish Parliamentarianism we have no fear. It can never again humbug Ireland into believing that the establishment of a glorified vestry in Dublin means the triumph of Irish nationality."

What is the outlook, then, for the Irish party in Parliament? A leading Liberal writes us privately that he thinks the Irish will hold the balance of power in the next Parliament. This certainly seems probable, yet, after all, it will be a very different thing from the balance of power which Parnell held. For one thing, obstruction can no longer, under the new rules, be made so deadly a weapon to extort terms as he made it. Furthermore, we shall not soon see the Irish party making and unmaking ministries on the question of Home Rule. Home Rule may be said to have been dropped from the Liberal programme; surely the Conservatives will not be bidding for the Irish vote, as they were in 1886, with promises of modified Home Rule. It seems highly probable that there will be a distinct rejuvenation of the Irish party in Parliament, and that it will be able to wring a succession of "doles" to agriculture and to education from a reluctant Government.

THE DECLINE OF TEACHING.

The recent death of Miss Porter, who for half a century conducted a well-known school for young women at Farmington, Conn., calls attention to one of those far-reaching changes which have done so much in these fifty years to transform American education. It is at least a curious coincidence that the development of the modern science of pedagogy, with its array of physiological and psychological data, should have been accompanied by a distinct decline in the prominence of the teacher. No one, we suppose, will question that the number of great teachers is decidedly less now than it once was, and that the depleted ranks are not being adequately filled up.

While this dearth of teaching power, notwithstanding the persistent efforts to overcome it, is characteristic of all departments of education, it is especially noticeable in the colleges and universities. Perhaps in no single respect, indeed, does the average college of the present day contrast more sharply with the college of a generation or two ago. The histories of most of our older institutions record the names of many distinguished men who, over and above their additions to knowledge in their respective fields, left upon their students marked individual impressions as teach-

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ers. The names of Nott at Union College, Hopkins at Williams, Wayland at Brown, Tyler at Amherst, during the period when all these were small colleges, are enough to cite. That the equipment of such men for their specific duties was sufficient was, for the most part, assumed without question; but it is as instructors, rather than as scholars, that they are most fondly remembered. In the minds of the older graduates, their figures assume, with the lapse of years, somewhat of heroic proportions, and their determining influence upon thought and life is constantly recalled.

That such conditions no longer generally prevail is, we suppose, matter of common observation. With all the excellence of their work, comparatively few instructors to-day get much hold of individuals in their classes. To be sure, the average college or university teacher is immensely industrious, and exceedingly learned. His students acquire a much greater body of positive facts than formerly, and their knowledge is commonly of a more practical sort. But somehow he rarely succeeds in awakening the personal affection which marks the work of the great teacher, or in making for himself a name as other than a sound scholar, or a good lecturer, or an attractive writer. It is by the knowledge he has imparted, or the stores of erudition he has made available, that he is most remembered, rather than by his skill in stimulating an interest in intellectual things, or by the large and inspiring qualities of his mind and heart.

The causes of this change are, doubtless, to be found in the same forces which have, in recent years, given to higher education so great a lift. The rise of the university, with its emphasis on specialized learning as the only learning worth having, has set a premium on intensity rather than breadth of attainment. Notwithstanding his praiseworthy knowledge, industry, and devotion, the modern university instructor, especially if he has been trained within the last twenty years, rarely has much of the broad outlook upon things which was so noticeably characteristic of the older culture. In intellectual matters, he is likely to feel himself tyrannized by men older and more learned than himself, and to be abnormally sensitive about slight deficiencies. The drudgery of the classroom, the slow and painstaking dealing with individuals, are too often regarded as a burden, to be shifted as much as possible upon the shoulders of younger men.

The new view of the teacher's functions seems to have, also, the stamp of official approval. Broadly speaking, pronounced ability as a teacher, unaccompanied by the production of at least one learned work, is not a passport to distinction. It very rarely leads to promotion. In other words, the higher the standard of the institution, the less place it seems to have for men and women whose chief power is their ability to teach. It is the making of books, and not the training of the young in habits of thought and work, that holds out to the teacher of to-day the main promise of reward.

It is useless, of course, to cry over spilt milk, or to sigh for a revival of the particular methods and manners of former days. The watchword of modern higher education is scholarship; and so long as scholarship of a technical and exacting sort offers the only avenue to distinction, young men and women are little likely to be turned aside from it. It cannot be idle to remember, however, that the present régime brings evil, as well as good, in its train. With all the successes of the college and university, and the fruitfulness of their service in every department of life, it cannot be denied that their influence upon many is appreciably narrowing. Valuable as are the products of concentration, concentration, nevertheless, implies restricted vision. It is not a favorable indication of the trend of things that the few great teachers and intellectual guides who are left to us should so often, both in and out of college circles, be a bit lightly regarded. Perhaps it is no longer true, among the better class of college men, that enthusiasm is "bad form"; but it too often is true that instructors who aim most at getting hold of the men under their charge, and care least about becoming eminent specialists, have to overcome a pervading distrust as to their soundness and authority.

Ideal as the figures of the notable teachers of the past generations may have become, one cannot doubt that they had hold of education by the right end. Culture, as they viewed it, was learning dispensed through a large mind. It was fact and theory, accurate investigation, and assured knowledge, lighted up by a strong and vivid personality. It is this clear impression of personal power, winning the regard of those upon whom it falls, that the higher education among us most needs.

THE MOTHER OF THE DUC D'ENGHIEN.

—II.

PARIS, February 22, 1900.

The relations of the Duke and Duchess de Bourbon were of a singular character. They led separate existences. She lived in the Élysée. Hearing that her husband had bought the estate of Nointel, near Paris (it belongs now to a wealthy stockbroker) for the sum of two million and a half of francs, and that he was embarrassed to pay the amount, she generously offered to advance it to him; he accepted the offer, and it was the occasion of one of the visits which he made to her. Soon afterwards the Duke left France with his father, upon the fall of the Bastille. He was one of the first to give the signal for the emigration. He took with him his son, the Duke d'Enghien, whom his mother was never to see again. The Duchess completely espoused the ideas of her brother, the Duke d'Orléans, who openly declared himself a champion of the Revolution. The Élysée, like the Palais Royal, was a centre for the partisans of the new ideas. The Duchess severed all her relations with the House of Condé, and remained in France; she left Paris, however, and spent some time in Strasbourg, where she found her philosopher Saint-Martin and her friend Madame d'Oberkirch. She returned to Paris in 1790, and entered into relations with a monk, Dom Gerle, prior of the Chartreuse of Pont-Sainte-Marie, who had passionately joined in the Revolutionary movement. (Dom Gerle figures in David's famous picture, "The Oath of the Tennis-Court.") We see her also in communication with an inspired prophetess, a reformer of the church, Suzette Labrousse, and another prophetess, Catherine Théot, who called herself "the mother of God."

The Duchess de Bourbon's character was the most singular mixture of absurdity, one might say folly, and of generous sentiments. When the confiscation of the fortune of the Condés was pronounced, she wrote to her husband a long letter (the text of which is given in Count Ducos's volume), inviting him to return to her house in France, and to dispose of all her fortune. As she had not emigrated, her property had not been confiscated. The Duke de Bourbon sent his answer, through a friend, M. de Nolives, March 27, 1792. He thanked her for her generous offer, but explained that it was impossible for him to return to France. M. de Nolives writes a curious letter to the Duke de Bourbon on April 8: "As soon," said he, "as I received Monseigneur's letter, I wrote to the Duchess de Bourbon, to ask for an interview, having a communication to make to her on your behalf." He tells how the Duchess received him, how she showed some irritation at not having a letter from her husband, only a verbal message. He had no difficulty in explaining that letters were not very safe under the Terror. The Duchess complained of having received no news of her son, no letters from him:

"I had heard people say that Mme. la Duchesse was devout, but I could not imagine to what an extent. There are few nuns who can be compared to her. Her language is absolutely mystical, her exaltation is extreme. She sees everywhere the hand of God; speak of anything else, and her mind wanders. It is a pity that with wit, grace, and all the faculties she has, she should have so far lost her bearings (the phrase is permissible). She is as democratic as anybody, not by wickedness, but by devotion."

M. de Nolives sensibly adds that it would be proper for the Duke d'Enghien to write from time to time to his mother.

Count Ducos gives extracts from the reflections which the Duchess de Bourbon wrote on the events of the Revolution. They are inspired by a sort of religious fatalism; the horrors which she sees committed under her eyes appear to her the consequence and the punishment of a guilty past; the victims seem to her hardly less to blame than the executioners. The time came when she had need of all her philosophy. The Convention voted the arrest of all the Bourbons still remaining in France. She was thrown into prison at Marseilles, with her brother, the Duke d'Orléans, and her nephews, the Duke de Montpensier and the Count de Beaujolais, and the Prince de Conti. The Duke d'Orléans was sent back from Marseilles to Paris, and

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soon after, notwithstanding all the pledges he had given to the Revolution, was guillotined at the same place as Louis XVI. (November 6, 1793). The Duchess de Bourbon had to announce the execution of the Prince to her nephews. She sent, twelve days afterwards, a petition to the Convention, which is an astonishing document. In terms of the greatest humility, without any allusion to the terrible loss she had sustained, to the persecutions of which all her family were the object, she begged the Government to accept for the nation the gift of all her property, expressing only the hope that the income of it might be spent for the widows and orphans of the defenders of the nation. She simply asked to be set free, and that she might preserve the means of living and of recompensing her devoted servants. This request was accompanied by a minute inventory of all her property, which was very large (the Élysée Bourbon was valued at 1,100,000 francs; Petitbourg at 1,200,000, etc.). The Citoyenne Bourbon (such was her name then) explained also in her request that she could not have influenced her husband and her son to become *émigrés*. The Convention took no notice of these offers, the State being already in possession. The Élysée was presently sold to a Mlle. Hovyn, who was a sort of undertaker for all the public festivities of Paris. The death of Robespierre probably saved the Duchess de Bourbon from the guillotine; she remained, however, in prison after the ninth Thermidor, and it was only two years afterwards that the Convention ordered that she should be set free. An income of 180,000 francs was allowed her out of the revenues of her sequestrated estates. The Prince de Conti was also allowed to leave his prison; the two young and innocent brothers of Louis Philippe, the Duke de Montpensier and the Count de Beaujolais, were retained in captivity.

The Duchess de Bourbon was allowed to live at Petitbourg, but, after the *coup d'état* of Fructidor aimed at the royalists of the Chamber, a decree obliged the Duchess d'Orléans, the Duchess de Bourbon, and the Prince de Conti to leave France. A pension of 100,000 francs was promised to the Duchess d'Orléans; that of the Duchess de Bourbon was reduced to fifty thousand francs. This Duchess wrote an account of the journey which she made from Paris to Barcelona. It serves as the preface to two volumes in which she published her correspondence with a certain M. Ruffin, the officer chosen by Augereau to conduct her to the frontier, and who was to remain in relation with her after their journey. This extraordinary journal did not deserve to be published, being very unworthy of a person who had been so long in the most tragical situation. It is half sentimental, half burlesque; it is childish in many parts, in others it becomes ridiculous and repulsive. It pretends to be humorous, but it simply proves that the Duchess de Bourbon was in a very unsettled state of mind. She talked religion and theology with the young officer Ruffin, she sought to convert him and to work for his salvation, and so was brought to begin with him a correspondence that was to last for many years. "For nearly fifteen years, she made controversial attacks on him."

At Barcelona she was welcomed and was received by the Captain-General of the province. She occupied first a sort of château with her sister-in-law, the Duchess d'Orléans, who had also made the journey from Paris to Barcelona. After a while, the two sisters-in-law took separate houses, one at Gratia, the other at Soria, in the neighborhood of Barcelona. The Duchess de Bourbon had no companion but a lady, the Countess Julie de Sérens, a secretary and his wife, M. and Mme. Gros. Her chief amusement seems to have been writing to Ruffin and receiving his answers. Ruffin left the army to hold a small office in Paris. The Duchess entreated him to enter into communication with Saint-Martin, and sent him elaborate plans for the reformation of humanity. He was not as enthusiastic a reformer as she, but did not like to discourage her too much.

The Duchess's relations with her son completely ceased; once only she wrote to him from Spain. The Duke d'Enghien answered her politely. The mother had become an admirer of Bonaparte, but her admiration certainly received a great shock when she heard of the execution of her son at Vincennes. Yet when the Duke de Bourbon wrote to her from England a letter on the terrible subject, she sent him a most extraordinary answer. "Why," asked she, "did my son not believe me? Why do all his family think of nothing but the glories of this world? and why do they forget that the glory of Heaven is acquired by renunciation in all things, by the most profound humility, by forgiveness of injuries, and even by the love of our enemies?"

The French army took Barcelona, and on the 11th of April, 1809, the Duchess de Bourbon charged Gouvion-Saint-Cyr, the French commander, to transmit to Napoleon a letter in which she told him that she had been ten years in Spain, and that it would be a great consolation to her to end her life in France, "with friends who inhabit the *ci-devant* province of Meaux," or in any other place which he might designate. "The wishes I should form there would be all for the glory of France and for your Majesty, of whom, Sire, I am the most humble and obedient subject." Gouvion-Saint-Cyr added to this letter a report on the Princess, her mode of life, her singularities; the Emperor made no reply. In 1812, the Duchess published two pamphlets, 'Thoughts of a Believing Soul on the Christian Religion, Practised in Spirit and Truth.' The year after she published the 'Correspondence between Mme. de B. and M. R. [Ruffin],' on their religious opinions. In 1812, Napoleon authorized the Duchess de Bourbon to go to Rome with the Prince de Conti and the Duchess d'Orléans, but they preferred to remain in Spain. Immediately after the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814, the Duchess de Bourbon left for France, and found all the royal family in the Tuileries. She received the Hôtel de Valentinois in exchange for the Élysée, which had, under Napoleon, become State property. She did not leave France during the Hundred Days, but remained at Rosny till the battle of Waterloo. During the Restoration she went very little to court, and saw only a limited number of friends. She maintained very good relations with the Orleans family, and constituted the Duke d'Orléans and his sister, Madame Adélaïde, her universal legatees. To Madame Adélaïde she left the magnificent hôtel in the Rue de Varennes where she died January 10, 1822, and which has now become the Austrian embassy.

Correspondence.

THE ANGLO-SAXON WARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The closing years of the century reflect little honor upon the Anglo-Saxon race. The Spanish-American and English-Boer wars are examples of folly and crime, nearly equally indefensible. The alleged "humanitarian" reason (had it been sincere) would not have justified, would inadequately have excused, the action of the United States; while the ultimatum of and invasion by the Boers furnished England the plausibility she would otherwise have been without. President McKinley could have prevented the war with Spain, but the desire of a second term seems to have smothered his conscience. The selfish political egoism of Mr. Chamberlain is responsible for the war in the Transvaal. Lord Salisbury was opposed to and would have prevented it, had he possessed a tithe of, for example, ex-President Cleveland's resolute will.

I greatly admire the English, and for this reason am filled with sorrow and indignation when they stoop to courses unworthy of themselves. I do not, however, forget their grand general record. You have observed the much expressed so-called "sympathy for the Boers." Erase "sympathy for the Boers" and substitute "antagonism to England," if you would arrive at virtual truth. And such would be the case were the relative conditions of the opposing peoples reversed. This hostility is not of to-day, and owes its origin to no present occasion. It is of long standing, unreasonable, malignant, and can have its root in but one soil, that epitome of infinite psychic contraction, envy. Envy is a mortifyingly common phase of human emotion, despicable, and moving *pari passu* with mendacity. Few men will acknowledge the feeling, preferring to give it some less objectionable name, since it necessarily implies consciousness, latent or patent, of the inferiority of the envier, the superiority of the envied. JOHN KERD.

March 2, 1900.

THE PROTESTANT PRINCIPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments upon "Prof. Mivart and the Church" in the *Nation* of February 22, you say that "the Catholic Church is no worse, in principle, as respects freedom of opinion, than the Protestant Church." The case of Prof. McGiffert, and many others of a like character, may be cited to emphasize the obvious fact that in the Protestant Church the great body of opinion is rigidly conservative, old mistakes and prejudices survive, there are heresy hunters, and Assemblies and Synods where the conclusions of modern science and modern theological thought are repudiated as emphatically as they are by Cardinal Vaughan. To admit this is one thing, to say that these acknowledged facts represent the *principle* inherent in Prostestantism is quite another.

Dr. Frederic Henry Hedge, in his essay on "The Two Religions," has graphically traced the antagonistic principles which bi-

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sect the history of the Christian Church—Pauline and Petrine, legal and liberal, the Greek Fathers and the Latin Fathers, private judgment and an infallible oracle. Private judgment means the right of the individual to think, to reason, to draw conclusions from facts and evidence even though they contradict opinions and dogmas consecrated by time and authority. The Reformers in principle appealed from authority to reason, and surely this is the Protestant principle. True, the Protestant Church, as an organization, an assembly, does not act consistently upon this principle, but, after all, it does influence, or rather guide, the mind of the Protestant world, even though it be unconscious of the leading. And perhaps, after all, it is better to follow the example of Erasmus and introduce changes gradually and cautiously. God's plan seems to be to work by evolution rather than by revolution or cataclysm. There is a suggestive paragraph by Canon Liddon which seems to explain very much of the phenomena of modern religious development:

"'The restless mind of man cannot but at last press a principle to the real limit of its application, even although centuries should intervene between the premise and the conclusion." JOHN T. ROSE.

CAZENOVIA, N. Y., February 28, 1900.

THACKERAY'S 'THE ROSE AND THE RING.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The assertion of your correspondent "Casey," in the *Nation* of February 22, that the publishers have introduced into the Biographical Edition of 'The Rose and the Ring' "several drawings not by Thackeray," is not warranted by the facts. It is true that several of the illustrations in this edition did not appear in the first edition, but, nevertheless, they are reproductions of drawings made by Thackeray for 'The Rose and the Ring.' I write advisedly, having personally inspected the original MS. and drawings. The English issue of the Biographical Edition contains the headlines at the beginning of chapters, omitted in the Harper publication, but, like the latter, omits several lines apparently forced out because of the difference in paging between this and the first edition.

WILLIAM H. LAMBERT.

PHILADELPHIA, March 2, 1900.

BABOO LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit an admirer of Wordsworth to ask the writer of the admirable but too brief review of the translations into Latin ('Florilegium Latinum' and two other volumes) a question. It is this: Supposing Prof. Butcher's translation of Wordsworth's Ode had been recently discovered—say by Mr. Flinders Petrie—as a fragment of a lost classic, how would it be translated into English? Would not the commentators see in *carcer* only the Roman prison, and set to work to discover what young scamp of good family, going to the bad, was referred to? Would any scholar see in

> "puero mox carceris ingruit horror crescenti"

anything more than the prison of the body? Would scholars rejoice that they had discovered a Roman Wordsworth? I leave your reviewer to say whether they would have found any suggestion of the prison of the spirit which is meant by Wordsworth—convention, custom, what Goethe calls "das Gemeine," and M. Arnold "Daily labour's dull Lethæan spring." It is impossible, as your reviewer says, to translate Wordsworth's spirituality into a language without equivalents; and, therefore, accomplished scholars might find a better use for their valuable time.

Looking at translations into Latin in general, and without special reference to the volumes now mentioned, what would Horace say of them, if he could revisit the world and condescend to use the language of Barbarians? Might he not smile and whisper, "Baboo Latin"?

AN ADMIRER OF WORDSWORTH.

STEPHEN, MINN., February 20, 1900.

[Our general agreement with the conclusions of our correspondent must not prevent us from pointing out that it would be unfair to judge of Prof. Butcher's version from the fragment of it which we quoted (and quoted for a different purpose than that which our correspondent has in mind). If we had nothing left of Wordsworth's ode except

> "Shades of the prison-house begin to close
> Upon the growing boy,"

guesses at its setting might vary widely. And our correspondent will remember that, even in Latin prose, to say nothing of Virgil and Lucretius, *carcer* was actually used of the prison of the spirit in the body. A Roman, we think, reading the whole context, would not have misunderstood Prof. Butcher's further extension of the metaphor.—ED. NATION.]

"INDIAN HARVEST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Though the above expression was once in vogue in New England for about a century, yet it has escaped alike the attention of lexicographers and of writers on the subject of Americanisms. Perhaps its existence was unknown; perhaps, if known, its meaning was thought to be too obvious to require definition. Upon examination, however, it is found that its apparent meaning is not a possible one. The history of the term is shown by the following extracts:

"It is ordered that all the inhabitants of Dorchester shall at or before the 22th of this instant march sufficiently Ringe and yoke all their Hogges and other swine and . . . the order of yoakinge to continue vntil Indian Haruest and ringinge." March 1, 1641-2, *Dorchester Town Records*, in *Boston Records* (1883), iv. 46.

"It is ordered, that Mr Deputy, . . . should go & keepe Cort at Pascataque, . . . And two bigger Corts are to bee kept there, the one between the English & Indian harvest, & the other in the spring." May 10, 1643, *Mass. Col. Records*, ii. 37.

"Itt was ordered thatt whatsoever pigs under 3 quarters of a yeare olde shall be found in the corne unyoaked, no fence being downe, the owners of them shall pay 6d apeece. This order to be in force no longer then till Indian harvest be inned." July 1, 1644, *New Haven Colonial Records*, (1857), i. 142.

"The Court haue ordered, that they, the said Indians, shall pay to him, the said Gabriell Fallowell, or his assignes, the sume of foure pounds, viz, forty shillings the next Indian haruest, and the remaining forty shillings Indian haruest come twelve month, in good and current pay." March 7, 1664-5, *Plymouth Col. Records*, iv. 82.

"The survayors of Cattell and Fences are required to take care this order be attended: and to haue halfe the Fines for their seruis: the Fynes are to take place this yeare till the end of indian harvest and begin agayne the first of aprill next." June 4, 1669, *Watertown Records* (1894), p. 96.

"We have also had a great and sore Drought, which threatened the Spoiling of our Harvest, and thereby an Encrease of the Scarcity that hath been amongst us; But this 4th of *August*, God hath given us an Abundance of Rain, Blessed be his Name, and we have our English Corn generally housed with us, and divers have gone to the Towns that were burned down, to Reap the Wheat, and what they had there Sown last Winter. . . . Our *Indian* Harvest is like to be very Fruitfull, that Grain is now sold at two Shillings Sixpence the Bushell." 1676, in S. G. Drake's *Old Indian Chronicle* (1867), p. 282.

"Capt. John Williams, being sumoned, apeared at the county Court at Plimouth, September 16th, 1690, to answer his presentment for selling severall pots of cyder to the Indians, in Indian harvest last past, & at sd Court thereof convict, is sentenced to pay a fine of five pounds in money." October 7, 1690, *Plymouth Col. Records*, vii. 308.

"Lt. Colonel Hilton . . . proposed to the Council that Dover and Portsmouth should each send out the same number [of men to hunt Indians] in course, which will last till the Indian Harvest is over." September 23, 1707, *New Hampshire Provincial Papers*, ii. 566.

"P. M. visited old David Monanaow, Indian, he tells me he was 104 last Indian Harvest." March 23, 1737, Rev. E. Parkman, *Diary* (1899), p. 25.

From this evidence it is clear that there was a distinction drawn between the Indian harvest and the English harvest, and that the former was later than the latter. Now if by English harvest is meant the harvest of the English colonists, and if by Indian harvest is meant the harvest of the Indians, why should the English have gathered their harvest earlier than the Indians? The only grain raised by the Indians was maize, while the English cultivated not only maize, but also wheat, barley, and rye. The latest of these to be harvested was maize. The maize-fields of the Indians must often have adjoined those of the whites; and to suppose that the grain planted by the Indians required a longer time to reach maturity than did the same grain planted by the colonists, is manifestly absurd. Hence the expression in question cannot have the meaning which apparently attaches to it, and we must seek a different interpretation.

It is needless to urge that the word "corn" has a wide latitude of meaning. "As a general term," says Dr. Murray in the Oxford Dictionary, "the word includes all the cereals, wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, rice, etc. . . . Locally, the word, when not otherwise qualified, is often understood to denote that kind of cereal which is the leading crop of the district; hence in the greater part of England 'corn' is = *wheat*, in North Britain and Ireland = *oats*." In the seventeenth century in this country by "English corn" was meant wheat, that expression being frequently used in contradistinction to "Indian corn," which, of course, meant maize. Where the word "corn" alone occurs, unqualified by English or Indian, the context must be relied on to tell whether wheat or maize is meant; and often it is impossible to tell with certainty. If now by English harvest we understand, not the harvest of the English, but the grain chiefly raised by the English, in other words, wheat, and if by Indian harvest we understand the grain peculiar to

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the Indians—that is, maize— we have an explanation which fits in with the facts, and which does not involve an absurdity. Under this interpretation, the above extracts do not necessarily refer to the Indians at all—and, as a matter of fact, not more than two do seem to refer to the Indians—but may only indicate the different grains and the difference in time between the harvesting by the colonists of their wheat and of their maize. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, March, 1900.

Notes.

Among the spring announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons we select 'Practical Agitation,' by John Jay Chapman; 'The American Stage,' by William Archer; 'Smith College Stories,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam; 'Our Native Trees, and How to Identify Them,' by Miss Harriet L. Keeler; 'The Toiling of Felix, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke; and 'Fifteen Years' Sport and Life,' by W. A. Baillie-Grohman.

Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Autobiography of a Quack,' Ernest Seton-Thompson's 'Biography of a Grizzly,' and Capt. Joshua Slocum's 'Sailing Alone Around the World,' will all graduate from the *Century Magazine* to book form on March 24.

Mr. Frederic Bancroft's 'Life of William H. Seward,' in two volumes; 'The Northwest under Three Flags,' by Charles Moore; and 'The Elements of International Law,' by Lieut.-Col. George B. Davis, are among Harper & Bros.' announcements for the current month.

Macmillan Co. will publish immediately 'The War in South Africa; Its Causes and Effects,' by J. A. Hobson, recently the South African correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian*; 'The Making of Character: Some Educational Aspects of Ethics,' by Prof. John MacCunn; 'The Care of the Child in Health,' by Dr. Nathan Oppenheim; and a "Primer Encyclopædia," in small volumes devoted to single topics, such as 'The History of Language' (by Henry Sweet), 'Dante' (by Edmund G. Gardner), 'Organic Chemistry' (by Prof. W. Ramsay), 'A History of Politics' (by Prof. E. Jenks), etc.

A scrap-book, 'Sidelights on American History, from the Discovery of America to the Civil War,' by Thomas S. Townsend, is in preparation by the author.

The Dodge Publishing Company, New York, announce 'For My Musical Friend,' essays on music and music study, by Aubertine Woodward Moore; 'Tiny Tunes for Tiny People,' by Addison F. Andrews; 'Memory Pictures of Puget Sound Region,' by Beth Bell Higgins; 'The Gentle Art of Cooking Wives,' by Elizabeth Strong Worthington; and 'Alice's Adventures in Pictureland,' by Florence A. Evans.

Carl Glucksmann, No. 14 East Forty-fifth Street, New York, will be the American agent for the portfolio of forty photogravures commemorating the Rembrandt Exhibition at Amsterdam. Many of the subjects have never before been reproduced. Dr. C. Hofstede De Groot furnishes the letterpress and a complete descriptive catalogue.

Forbes & Co., Boston, will soon publish 'A Book of Verses,' by Nixon Waterman.

Messrs. Scribners' uniform edition of Mr. Frank Stockton's novels and stories, liberally conceived, and executed with much elegance, has been extended since we last reported upon it by four volumes, viz.: 'Ardis Claverden,' 'The Great War Syndicate, etc.,' 'The House of Martha,' and 'Pomona's Travels.' The same house has issued Part I. of Mr. Kipling's reluctant reproduction (as against unauthorized and unfaithful exploitation) of his journalistic letters of travel, 1887-1889, 'From Sea to Sea.' They are, in fact, whatever seeds of promise they contain, not to be contemplated with entire satisfaction from their author's present summit. Not being works of imagination, too, they cannot well be illustrated by the elder Kipling; hence three heliogravures of actual scenes are substituted.

With Macmillan Co. we are still more in arrear. Of their two Shaksperes the Eversley series, edited by Dr. C. H. Herford, has, with its tenth volume, come to a conclusion, while the "Larger Temple" (of the Messrs. Dent) has proceeded to a sixth. Critical comment on both we defer to a more convenient opportunity; each speaks for itself on its face. The two volumes, 'A Desperate Character, and Other Stories,' and 'The Jew, and Other Stories,' complete the fifteen volumes of Constance Garnett's conscientious translation of Turgeneff's novels. That all these works are now made accessible in English from one hand is a very considerable boon; and if something of the aroma of the original is occasionally wanting in this version, the great Russian artist might easily have fared worse in other hands. The pocket "Temple Classics" run on with Earle's 'Microcosmographia' combined in a single volume with Healey's 'Characters' of Theophrastus, Shakspere being in a sort a connecting link; Defoe's 'Journal of the Plague Year'; Mr. Romesh Chandra Dutt's condensed versification of the 'Ramayana,' as a companion volume to his translation of the 'Mahabharata' already ventured in this series; Tennyson's 'Princess' from the fifth edition, and early poems (1830-'33); and 'The Earlier Monologues of Robert Browning.' Each of these charming volumes has its frontispiece portrait. Finally, in Mr. A. W. Pollard's "Library of English Classics," stately in form, but wonderfully cheap in price, already begun with Bacon's Essays and Sheridan's Plays, we have Sir Thomas Malory's 'Morte Darthur' in two volumes—"the first English classic," as the present editor points out, "for our knowledge of which we are entirely dependent on a printed text," viz., Caxton's, whose preface is here retained. The admirable feature is (besides the needful glossary) a full index of proper names, with itemizing.

We have received from the Delegates of the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde) the first four volumes of the Oxford Classical Texts (Plato, vol. i.; Thucydides, vol. i.; Lucretius, and the Minor Works of Tacitus). These volumes, compact, handy, business-like, printed in clear-cut type on good paper, and wonderfully free from errors of the press, would be singularly attractive in their simple neatness, even if they did not bear, as they do, the names of some of the very best classical scholars in England.

That the English take their pleasures seriously, if not sadly, appears from a glance at 'Standard Whist,' by Annie Blanche Shelby (Herbert S. Stone & Co.). Here are expounded and enforced the principles and rules of the modern scientific game, with a rigor which would have satisfied Sarah Battle, and with the authority of the American Whist League and the American Whist Congress. The manual is very compact, while the type is large and clear; and, as the book is convenient for hand and pocket, it seems altogether fitted for the use of those who look on whist-playing as something to be carried on in sober earnest and not with frivolity.

Mr. Nicholas Paine Gilman has long devoted himself to the study of coöperation and profit-sharing, and in his latest publication, 'A Dividend to Labor' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), he gathers facts and figures showing the extent to which employers in various countries have shared their gains with their workmen. Mr. Gilman's ideal is that of a partnership between masters and men, so far as gains are concerned, and he looks on employers who pay extra wages according to their own discretion and not as a duty, as still not free from the bonds of iniquity. "The function of the modern employer has not yet been sufficiently moralized"; and in urging this truth Mr. Gilman is earnest and convincing. His excursus on Robert Owen seems hardly necessary in a work of this kind, which is made up largely from the returns contained in various official publications. The general result is certainly very impressive, and highly encouraging to those who look forward to a permanent adjustment of the relations between masters and men on a pacific basis. We incline to the opinion that most readers will be surprised to find how great has been the progress made in this direction.

A very readable account of current methods and problems of taxation, expenditure, and fiscal management is given by Prof. W. M. Daniels of Princeton University, in 'Elements of Public Finance' (Henry Holt & Co.). While the work "owed its origin to the want the author experienced in finding a suitable text for his classes," it will be found convenient by many who are not college students.

The publication (1883-1891) of the rare or unpublished works of Alessandro Manzoni, undertaken by the late Ruggiero Bonghi, was interrupted with the fourth volume by the death of that indefatigable scholar and statesman. The choice of a successor, which lay with Senator Pierino Brambilla, fell upon Giovanni Sforza, journalist and historian, already a Manzonian student, who, in 1898, produced a fifth volume. The new editor has now published the first of ten volumes which will consist very largely of "chips" from the workshop, and will have at least the value, as Vittorio Ferrari points out in the *Perseveranza* of February 12, of demonstrating the scrupulous care bestowed by Manzoni upon his writings, where the uninitiated are filled with admiration for the "spontaneity of the casting." The new volume has a letter on Romanticism, which Manzoni considerably modified. Others will contain an unpublished scheme for a new botanical nomenclature, and annotations on the Milanese-Italian vocabulary of Cherubini.

Frau Dr. Foerster-Nietzsche has caused 1,500 copies of volume i. and 1,400 of volume xi. of the collected works of Nietzsche in a new edition to be destroyed, because of incorrect use of the manuscript.

The manuscript collection of the Boston Public Library has just been enriched by the gift, on the part of his widow, of the late Rufus Wilmot Griswold's manuscript correspondence, which had in part been

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printed in the memoir published just before his death by his son, the late William McCrillis Griswold. Some 1,200 pieces range from the year 1830 to 1870. Correspondence of John Brown with the Boston friends more or less privy to his Harper's Ferry design has been given by one of their number, Col. Higginson, to the same institution. It embraces 207 letters.

The annual report of the Geological Survey of Canada, which has just been published, fills a volume of 1,078 pages. In the summary report of the director, George M. Dawson, it is stated that the general index to the earlier reports, which has been in process of compilation by Mr. D. B. Dowling for some time, has been completed and is in the hands of the printer. It contains about 31,000 references alphabetically arranged, an analytical key to localities geographically arranged, and an enumeration of all analyses and descriptions of minerals. The most important of the special reports is that of Alfred Ernest Barlow on the geology, physical features, and natural resources of the region in the vicinity of Lakes Nipissing and Temiscaming, comprising the county of Pontiac, Quebec, and portions of the district of Nipissing, Ontario. This report is accompanied by two maps on a scale of four miles to an inch, and is illustrated. A report by William McInnes treats of the geology of a tract of 3,456 square miles lying to the west of Thunder Bay, Lake Superior, comprising portions of Rainy River and Thunder Bay districts, Ontario. Other special reports are on the mineral resources of New Brunswick, by L. W. Bailey, and on the surface geology and gold-bearing deposits of the "eastern townships" and adjacent portions of southeastern Quebec. Elfric Drew Ingall contributes his annual report on mineral statistics and mines, from which it appears that the mineral product of 1897, as compared with that of 1896, showed an advance of nearly 27 per cent. This was due to the continued expansion of the mining industries of British Columbia, and the increased production of gold, silver, copper, and lead in that province.

The much lauded German university system has its seamy sides. One of them is revealed by a correspondent of the *Frankfurter-Zeitung*, who points out that the income of the many "extraordinary" professors is so small that they find it hard to subsist, even as bachelors, and if they wish to marry they have to join the officers and other fortune-hunters in search of a wealthy bride. Thus the poorer men who aspire to academic honors are in danger of being crowded out by those who happen to have well-to-do parents.

The students of the University of Berlin appear in no very favorable light in a pamphlet recently issued by one of them, Hermann Kantorowicz. He relates that, of 5,000 students connected with the University, only 335 made use of the circulating library connected with the Akademische Lesehalle, though the subscription for a term is less than twenty cents. Of the books taken out, 68.4 per cent. were fiction, with Sudermann, Fontane, and Spielhagen in the lead. Of French works, Zola's and Prévost's were most in demand, while English works were never called for in the original. The works of Shakspere, Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, and Kleist were altogether asked for only seven times in two months, and the writer attributes this to the distaste for the classics which the system of teaching them in the German schools inspires. It is likely, however, that in this case the students are not as black as painted, as they may prefer to buy clean, new copies of the classics in the cheap editions of Hendel, Meyer, Reclam, etc., who offer them in clear type and on good paper at 2½ to 5 cents a volume. The Reclam library alone has, since 1867, issued over 4,000 numbers, the demand for which keeps forty-three fast presses busy, and turns out the classics by the hundreds of thousands. Of Schiller's 'Wilhelm Tell,' for instance, 619,000 copies were sold in thirty years.

In Russia women have been for some years employed as apothecaries' clerks, and it is said that the public as well as the apothecaries themselves manifest a preference for them over men. In Germany, too, a movement in this direction has been started, the Würtemberg Minister of Education having resolved to give women a chance to secure the necessary instruction and pass examinations. On this subject the Berlin review, *Die Frauenbewegung*, has an article by Dr. W. Wächter, which gives the impression that, if women do secure this privilege, it will be anything but a sinecure. German apothecaries' clerks have to undergo a very severe course of studies, and, when they receive a position, they are expected to be on duty from seven or eight in the morning to ten or eleven at night, besides attending to the night bell every other night, if not every night. For all this they receive from fifteen dollars to eighteen dollars a month, with board and lodging, or thirty dollars to thirty-seven dollars without board and lodging. In a few exceptional cases an assistant may receive as much as fifty dollars a month. Under such circumstances it is hardly a wonder that young men do not crowd into this field of employment. It is, indeed, the difficulty of getting assistants, especially in villages, that has made many of the apothecaries willing to consider the candidacy of women. Dr. Wächter, however, sounds two notes of warning. Women clerks, he urges, should under no circumstances accept lower wages than the men, and they should, if possible, organize for protection; nor should they ever consent to act, when business is slack, as assistant to the apothecary's wife, thus enabling her to dispense with a servant.

—The February issue of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library contains some letters of James Monroe, a selection from a large number presented to the Library by Mr. John L. Cadwalader. They do but whet the appetite for more, as they are of high interest in matter and for the personal characteristics of the writer. The first three of the series were written to John Dawson of Virginia, and treat of the interminable disputes into which Monroe found himself plunged on his return from his first mission to France. His own intemperate language and some unseemly occurrences at a public dinner in Paris were naturally reported to his prejudice, and he undertakes a defence, even hinting at a duel with the man whom he looks upon as his opponent. But his unutterably base betrayal of the Reynolds charges against Hamilton, the late Secretary of the Treasury, had already placed Monroe in a position where no explanation would suffice, and where, under the code of the day, he must fight or slink away. He preferred the latter course; and he patched up his second quarrel in the same manner, shielding his public behavior under his lengthy 'View of the Conduct of the Executive,' a work published in Philadelphia, but never sold outside of Virginia. Gallatin intervened also, and thus saved Monroe from being "pitted against this contemptible rascal," Morris, who had, after all, merely repeated what had been known in France. These earlier letters of 1798 are followed by eleven letters written between 1801 and 1808, which show Monroe to be still on the defensive and still busy in explaining petty criticism. He suffers from "certain calumnies" which are continually reappearing, and somehow his explanations never fully explain—a fact of which he appears to be conscious. Later, he explains why Pinckney was allowed to continue with him in the Spanish negotiations, and expresses Napoleon's wish to promote an adjustment—a wish so fully exposed in Henry Adams's masterly history. Balked in his endeavor to reach a settlement, Monroe turns upon Livingston, and, in a cipher letter to Madison, denounces him: "There is much reason to suspect him of the grossest iniquity. . . . Be assured that he will poison what he touches. . . . In short he is the man of all others whom you should avoid, as most deserving the execrations of his country." The cause of this outburst was a suspicion that Livingston wanted the English mission, whither Monroe was now bound. There his success in diplomacy was no better, and, three years later, in 1808, he is again in Virginia, treating attacks upon himself with "silent contempt," and distributing among his correspondents thirty-six-page letters of explanation. The long letter, dated July 13, 1808, is worth a careful reading, for it is as personal as it is historic. Monroe was hurt, was opposed by a "cabal," was a Presidential possibility, and was for the moment cool to Jefferson and "out" with Madison. The letter is the outline of an address to be issued from a committee in praise of his conduct, and is a most remarkable document.

—Mr. Ellery Sedgwick's 'Thomas Paine' in the "Beacon Biographies" (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) is a notable addition to that interesting but rather uneven series. The writer brings to his task a more judicious temper than that manifested by any of Paine's better-known biographers heretofore. "It is difficult," he says, "to write of Paine without enthusiasm," and fortunately he does not succeed in doing so; but he gives us no rhapsodies. Neither have we any of those impossible theories and explanations which disfigured the elaborate apology for Paine to which Mr. M. D. Conway devoted so much patient zeal. Such mare's-nests as that Paine wrote the Letters of Junius and the Declaration of Independence, and that Gouverneur Morris deliberately plotted against his life, are passed over in silence or but lightly touched. The most ingenious advocacy does not serve Paine so well as the simple truth. The rapid movement necessitated by Mr. Sedgwick's restricted space heightens the interest of his narrative. For some reason Paine's English years, 1787-1792, make a better story than the American, 1774-1787. There is ample praise for his American service, while his mistakes are frankly conceded, as where his attack on Silas Deane is called

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"a colossal imprudence." For his failings there is such consideration as they deserve, and no excess. The emphasis on Paine's religious writings is disproportionately slight for their historical importance, but the treatment of them is intelligent and just. It is a pity that Paine's most signal date, that of the publication of 'Common Sense,' January 10, 1776, is misprinted in the body of the book; but it is right in the "Chronology." The book is an important one as doing Paine even justice, and should be widely read.

—Messrs. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. have begun the publication of a series of little illustrated books on Egyptology and Assyriology which are intended to serve as short and popular introductions to the larger works on these subjects. Four volumes have appeared, three by Dr. Budge and one by L. W. King, M.A., both of the British Museum. The characterization of these is easy. Vol. i. is by Dr. Budge, 'Egyptian Ideas of the Future Life,' and its first lines will tell the reader what he has to expect: "The Egyptians believed in One God, who was self-existent, immortal, invisible, eternal, omniscient, almighty, and inscrutable; the maker of the heavens, earth, and underworld." This extraordinary statement is backed by unverifiable quotations from a now obsolete and always dubious authority, the 'Religion und Mythologie' of Brugsch. The rest of the book is of much the same type. Volume ii., 'Egyptian Magic,' is also by Dr. Budge, but is not vitiated to such a degree by fundamental misconception. It is a most readable and interesting account of Egyptian amulets, magic pictures, names, ceremonies, with tales of ghosts (some creepy enough), and dreams and enchantments where, most evidently, more is meant than meets the ear. And, in truth, the reader will often find it hard to tell whether he is reading the volume on religion or on magic; if the Egyptian ever tried to keep them apart, he failed lamentably. All of which is a warning that Dr. Budge's ideal monotheism cannot have sat very heavily. For the different usages and rites many excellent parallels are adduced. Yet, in all this, the reader will do well not to pin his faith too closely to the various "translations"; the more modern and philosophical they seem, the less are they to be trusted.

—To the third volume not even such qualified commendation as this can be given. It is also by Dr. Budge—'Easy Lessons in Egyptian Hieroglyphics.' Its ease is illusory; it can do nothing but puzzle and mislead. It ignores absolutely all the progress that has been made in determining the grammatical structure of the Egyptian language, and makes the absurd statement that, until all Egyptian texts have been published, "it is idle to attempt to make a final set of grammatical rules." No one, it may be replied, professes to have made such "a final set," but most conscientious workers have come to recognize that Egyptian must have been under grammatical laws, and that it is the duty of the student to discover what these laws were. Further, that it is the duty of the teacher to put before the learner a simple and clear outline of these laws so far as his knowledge of them has attained. But this book leaves us in grave doubt as to the state of Dr. Budge's own knowledge of Egyptian grammar. Certainly, when he does venture upon any details, as in dealing with the alphabet, the confusion is twice confounded. Thus, on p. 15, he gives us A, Á, Ā, I, U as belonging to the alphabet, in spite of the perfectly assured fact that the signs he so renders stand for consonants, and that there are absolutely no vowels in the Egyptian script except some uncertain final forms. This Dr. Budge himself admits on p. 146; so how the student is to understand, or can understand, these alphabetic forms, passes our wit. When he is further told, as on pp. 35 and 38, that there is no *e* in Egyptian, but that it has been added in the transliterations to enable him to pronounce the words more easily, he will feel the approaches of paresis and give up for good either Egyptian or Dr. Budge. We hope it will be the latter, and that he will then turn to the only trustworthy guide to Egyptian in English, or any other language, Erman's 'Egyptian Grammar,' in the "Porta Linguarum Orientalium." It is with relief that we take up the fourth volume, 'Babylonian Religion and Mythology,' by Mr. King. It can be heartily commended as simple, clear, popular, and yet scholarly and accurate. Within its limits it is abreast of the most recent research, and shows, what was known before, that Mr. King is one of the best of the younger Assyriologists. It also shows that the day of amateurism in English Assyriology is past, though English Egyptology seems still to be under the same unhappy spell that has so long controlled it.

—Mr. George Neilson's 'Annals of the Solway until A. D. 1307'—a little book of some seventy pages recently reprinted from the Transactions of the Glasgow Archæological Society by Messrs. MacLehose of Glasgow—is an excellent example of what may be called the new antiquarianism, combining as it does minute information concerning a particular locality with a competent knowledge of the best recent work in mediæval history and philology. Scholars like Mr. Neilson can do much not only to put local antiquities on a scientific footing, but also to enrich our general histories. He shows very conclusively, for instance, from a consideration of early nomenclature and cartography, that the original "Solway" was the "Sul-wath" or "muddy ford" at Eskmouth, which formed the passage from England to Scotland on the most frequented of all western routes. The Scottish end of it is still marked, he believes, by the Lochmabenstone, the lonely granitic boulder which stands a few yards above high-water mark on the seashore in Gretna parish, and which during the fifteenth century marked the place of meeting of the Warden courts for the administration of March law. It was not till the seventeenth century that the name Solway came to be attached to the Firth of the sea which lies between the Mull of Galloway and St. Bees Head. Mr. Neilson brings together all the incidents, authentic and traditional, which make the shores of the Solway so full of patriotic and romantic interest to every Scot, and presents them in a style at once scholarly and entertaining. As there are only a hundred and fifty copies of this work for sale, every library which appeals to a Scots constituency must make haste to secure one. The only fault we have to find with an otherwise exemplary performance is that there is no mention of 'Redgauntlet' even in a footnote. How Mr. Neilson can set forth the "four chief kinds of salmon fishing on the Scottish side of the Solway" (p. 52, n. 7) without referring to the Laird of the Lakes and Mr. Joshua Geddes, passes our comprehension; unless, indeed, the spearing of salmon was a sheer invention of Sir Walter's, and Mr. Neilson's piety prevents his telling us so!

—Léopold de Saussure's interesting 'Psychologie de la Colonisation Française dans ses rapports avec les Sociétés Indigènes' (Paris: Alcan), is a sweeping criticism of the French method of dealing with the indigenous populations of French dependencies. It is based upon the hypothesis, amply verified by experience, that mental characteristics of races are hereditary, accumulated through the lapse of ages, and incapable of being hurriedly changed or altered; that language, institutions, religion, and other phenomena in the life of society are to be regarded as the expression of this gradually developing race-mind, and consequently cannot be successfully improvised for the occasion, nor displaced in favor of systems evolved by a higher culture-stage. The author asserts that the French, and, indeed, all nations of the Latin stock, are deficient in ability to set aside theory and adapt themselves and their policy to prevailing conditions. In the case of the French, the doctrine of "assimilation," to which they owe so much of their colonial ill-success, dates from the famous school of dogmatists which preceded the Revolution. According to the theories of these philosophers, human beings were units, essentially alike and reasonable, a certain number of which, taken collectively, formed a given race. Deviations from the highest civilization (*i. e.*, that of the French nation) were due to mistaken reasoning. To elevate a people, therefore, it was only necessary to set clearly before them the beliefs and institutions of the highest civilization; they then would recognize the faultiness of their own system, and gratefully adopt the new. This generous project was called assimilation. In pursuance of such a theory and policy the French have vainly, and with most awkward and absurd consequences, attempted to impose their language, judiciary, etc., upon the various indigenous races which have come under their sway. In this they are likened to the Spaniards and Portuguese, and contrasted with the great colonizing peoples, the Romans and the Anglo-Saxons. Abundant facts are cited to prove the author's thesis.

LECKY'S MAP OF LIFE.

The Map of Life: Conduct and Character. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. Pp. xv and 328.

Mr. Hardcastle, of Goldsmith's immortal "She Stoops to Conquer," boasts that half the differences of the parish were adjusted in his parlor by the aid of "a little philosophy"; and the impertinent suitor, who still mistakes his intended father-in-law for the landlord of the Buck's Head, retorts, "Well, this is the first time that I ever heard of an innkeeper's philosophy." And the modern reader or hearer of this exquisite eighteenth-century comedy of errors feels that Goldsmith's wit derives half its charm from its curious old-world flavor. What does Hardcastle mean by philosophy? The term is not precisely the word that comes

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naturally, in the sense in which Hardcastle uses it, to the lips of the Englishman of to-day, whether he be a squire or an innkeeper. Yet, and this is the point to which we would direct attention, there was not a man among Goldsmith's contemporaries who failed to catch his meaning. That a little philosophy would aid one in getting through the difficulties of life was one of the fundamental beliefs of the eighteenth century. The brilliant verses of Pope, the sententious morality of Johnson, the comedy of Goldsmith, the easy didacticism of Addison, all taught the same moral, and asserted or implied that the true way to escape misfortune and to insure a modicum of happiness amid the chances and dangers of life was to follow the guidance of "philosophy"—a term which, in the mouths of men of the eighteenth century, meant the application of thoughtful common sense to the practical problems on the solution whereof the happiness of civilized human beings depends.

Turn again to Hardcastle. He gives us a good enough specimen of the philosophy in which he trusted: "There was a time, indeed," he says, "I fretted myself about the mistakes of government, like other people; but finding myself every day growing more angry, and the government growing no better, I left it to mend itself." Here we have the comic rendering of Johnson's solemn conviction that the happiness of mankind was almost unaffected by forms of government or schemes of legislation, and the good-humored version of Candide's "mais il faut cultiver notre jardin." We touch upon one of the points as to which all the men who belonged in spirit to the eighteenth century agreed. True wisdom consisted, they all held, in the application to human affairs of a little philosophy. In England, the last and most effective preacher of this creed was Sydney Smith, but, though he died in 1845—three years later than Dr. Arnold of Rugby—he belonged in spirit to a bygone age, and had lived on into the midst of a generation who hardly understood his point of view or spoke his language. Consider the earnest teachers or preachers of different schools who really gave its tone to the earlier and middle portion of the nineteenth century. Take, as examples, Coleridge, Arnold, Newman, Maurice, Carlyle, and J. S. Mill. It were difficult to name together men who differed more widely in character, in education, or in their views of life. Yet a critic may be certain that in no part of the works of these eminent writers and thinkers will he find that their disciples are recommended to rely on thoughtful common sense for guidance through the intricate maze of human existence. Faith, fervor, enthusiasm, earnestness—all the forms, in short, of exalted feeling—are admitted by the teachers of the nineteenth century to be powers, and to be entitled to respect. But, in the reaction against the prosaic rationality of a preceding age, they all, consciously or unconsciously, rated at a very low value the dictates of the commonplace every-day philosophy which commended itself as much to the piety of Johnson as to the worldly sagacity of Horace Walpole.

Here, however, as in other fields of thought, the closing years of the nineteenth century betray a tendency to return towards the convictions of the eighteenth. Of this moral reversion Mr. Lecky's 'Map of Life' is a sign. It is an attempt, made by a man of eminence, to impress once more upon the world the importance of testing the conduct of life by the standard of philosophic common sense. His book is easy to read; it is interesting in itself; it is still more interesting as a sketch (and a perfectly truthful sketch) of the view of the world taken by a man of letters who, though a student, has mixed with society, and, though devoted to the study of history, has always shown a keen interest in public life. But, after all, the main interest of the book, to a thoughtful reader, will be found to lie in its suggesting the question, How far does the improvement of society arise from adherence to the maxims of common sense; or how far is it due, in the main, to those bursts of feeling or enthusiasm which, at particular eras, lift sometimes individuals and sometimes whole societies above the level of their ordinary every-day existence?

For those who believe that social progress is in the main due to the practice of enlightened prudence, the 'Map of Life,' and the class of literature to which it belongs, will appear to have a very solid value. Nor can any sensible man doubt that Mr. Lecky's book, while it can do no harm, may do much good. For it is impossible to deny that the precepts it contains are sound, and the reflections which it suggests are true. Open it anywhere at chance and you will find something which it is just as well should be said about some topic of practical importance. Look, for example, at the reflections on the relations of members of Parliament to their constituents. We cannot doubt that, after reading Mr. Lecky's pages, any one will feel that he understands a little better than he did the moral difficulties of an M. P.'s position, and, further, that it would be well if both representatives and electors cultivated the spirit of moral considerateness which pervades Mr. Lecky's counsels. Take up a totally different topic and consider what Mr. Lecky has to say upon marriage. The subject is a well-worn one; we cannot expect from our author anything which is at once very new and very true. His calm truthfulness makes the maintenance of paradox to him an impossibility; yet if his advice and thoughts are not very novel, they are, as far as they go, sound, and if the mass of Englishmen or Americans habitually looked upon marriage in the rational and sensible manner recommended by Mr. Lecky, human happiness and prosperity would undoubtedly be increased.

Exactly the same thing holds good as to his remarks on the oldest, and, on the whole, the most serious, subject of human thought, namely, death. It is certainly well to be reminded again and again that death is terrible chiefly through its accessories. It is well, again, to have our attention aroused to the difference between pagan and Christian views of mortality. They each may be made to contribute something to that calmness with which every man would wish to meet his end. On such a subject all truths are of necessity truisms, but it is an error to suppose that the meditation on truisms does not greatly, under certain circumstances, facilitate right action. The more, in fact, one reflects on the 'Map of Life' and books of a like character, the more one becomes convinced that they can and do, within certain limits, give real guidance to individuals, and aid in the progress of social improvement. One-half, at least, of the mistakes made by men in their own career, and a good deal more than one-half of the defect in the working of political institutions, is due to the patent neglect of obvious truths. Our readers, at any rate, need not be reminded that in England, in the United States, and, indeed, throughout the civilized world, misgovernment and corruption, wherever it exists, may be ascribed in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred to the widespread disposition to neglect, in the transaction of public affairs, maxims which every man who does not want to end his career in the bankruptcy court, obeys in the management of his private business. Nor is it less clear that the habit of following in public affairs the dictates of common sense, the application to the interests of the community of "a little philosophy," does in fact keep towns and states from ruin. There is, then, a great value in that practical philosophy in which the wisest men of the eighteenth century placed implicit trust.

But though this is true, no one can hold it to be the whole truth. In the life of individual men there occur, more constantly than the world supposes, crises which religious teachers call conversions, though such seemingly sudden changes of character are less sudden than they appear, and do not invariably take a religious form. But, whatever their form, these crises assuredly offer an opportunity for moral improvement—the chance, so to speak, of a new birth, which seems to be, and perhaps is, quite independent of prudential morality. What may be conjectured to be true of individuals is still more certainly true of societies. It is to the periods of faith or fervor that any historian must ascribe the changes which have revolutionized the world. The rise of Christianity, the Crusades, the Reformation, even the French Revolution, doubtful as is the amount of the benefit which its noisy rhetoric and bloody violence bestowed upon mankind, did for a time at least raise whole societies to a level which they could never have reached by the practice of prudential morality. Every movement, indeed, which has really aided human progress, has been the parent of innumerable petty amendments in the conduct of life. But these small social ameliorations which delight men of common sense are rather the results than the cause of that sudden advance towards a higher level of social existence which is really due to the inspiration of enthusiasm. Franklin owed a great deal to the Pilgrim Fathers. He, too, constructed his map of life, and in some respects it was a good chart enough for men who, living in an unenthusiastic age, needed a little philosophy to point out to them the roads which lead towards the practical happiness of individuals and of states. But it must never be forgotten that it is only after an heroic generation has, with reckless energy, removed the impediments to human well-being, that men of sense can reap the practical fruits of a revolution which they themselves could never have carried through.

From one point of view, therefore, it is natural, and even reasonable, that thinkers who reflect on the course of history should rate somewhat low the worth of the sound and slightly prosy truisms propounded by the class of writers of whom Mr. Lecky is a very favorable representative. Yet this depreciation of moral commonplaces may easily be carried a great deal too far. Enthusiasm or faith is at bottom neither a virtue nor a vice, but a power. Its true

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worth depends on its being guided by wisdom, and there is no better test by which to discriminate the faith which every one recognizes as good, from that dangerous enthusiasm on which all the best thinkers of the eighteenth century looked with profound distrust, than to examine whether the passionate feeling which we are called upon by men of one school to admire, and by men of another school to dread, does or does not lead to actual, palpable improvement in the conduct of life. We all know that the periods of faith have worked no small amount of evil. Religion has been but too often the parent of persecution. The Crusades led to an almost unlimited waste of life, and, what was far worse, encouraged the worship of more than one false ideal. Most Protestants will assert (and, as we hold, with reason) that the Reformation not only purified the religion of Europe, but also indirectly but certainly set up in Protestant countries a new ideal of intellectual and moral sincerity. Yet the wars of religion, culminating in the lengthy and almost useless horrors of the Thirty Years' War, constitute a fearful set-off against the benefits reaped by mankind from the enthusiasm or faith of heroes such as Luther or Calvin.

If we want, then, to know what the mass of men have really gained from an age of enthusiasm, we must consider what is the nature of the practical morality to which it ultimately gave rise. Did it, in the long run, make ordinary commonplace men better and wiser than their forefathers? What, to use Mr. Lecky's phrase, was the map of life by which, after the emotions that cannot from the nature of things be lasting in the lives either of individuals or of societies had cooled down, men adopted for their guidance? The ordinary morality, in short, which finally prevails in any society, tests the worth of the great movements of which that morality is in reality the product. Books like Mr. Lecky's 'Map of Life' have, then, a real value and importance; they are not, it is true, the cause of any great changes in men's way of thinking, but they are the record of the results which have been gained during periods of passion or fervor. They are, too, something more than mere records. The practical philosophy which authors like Mr. Lecky inculcate, if it does not rouse men to heroic efforts, does distinctly tend to prevent them from falling below their own recognized ideals. Their interest and their merit is that they in fact afford to commonplace persons a real though not profound philosophy of life.

NEW BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

A Biographical Dictionary of Musicians. Compiled and Edited by Theodore Baker. G. Schirmer.

Beethoven. By Frederick J. Crowest. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Wagner. By Charles A. Lidgey. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Recollections of Johannes Brahms. By Albert Dietrich and J. V. Widmann. English by Dora E. Hecht. Scribners.

Wotan, Siegfried, and Brünnhilde. By Anna Alice Chapin. Harpers.

Old Scores and New Readings. By John F. Runciman. London: Unicorn Press.

Dr. Baker justly claims that no other work of similar scope can compete in completeness, freshness, and accuracy with his 'Biographical Dictionary of Musicians.' It is a book of 653 pages in double columns, and the editor has evidently spared no pains to make it superior to its predecessors. Heretofore Riemann's 'Musik-Lexicon' has been the standard, and it remains so as a dictionary of musical subjects; but in its biographic department it is less complete and universal (at least in its fourth edition, 1894—the fifth has not yet reached this country) than Dr. Baker's, which, as was to be expected, pays more attention to American musicians than foreign writers have done. Dr. Baker has also done wisely in giving somewhat larger relative space to living musicians than to those whose career is ended, and many of whom are described at length in special works. Of these special works he gives a list after each composer—a list which is usually more international, and in some cases (Wagner, for instance) much more complete, than Riemann's. In other cases there are serious omissions: H. F. Frost's little volume should not have been omitted from the naturally scant Schubert bibliography; and under the head of Anton Seidl it was unpardonable not to refer to the sumptuous memorial volume written by his friends and published by the Scribners a year ago. Nearly 6,000 biographies are given, three hundred of which are illustrated by pen-and-ink vignettes by Mr. Gribayédoff. The editor apologizes for a lack of completeness in this respect on the ground that it was difficult to procure photographs; but this does not explain why Emma Eames, Nordica, Lilli Lehmann, and Sembrich are not pictured. Emma Calvé, the greatest French vocalist-actress of the century, is not even represented by a biography.

Mr. Frederick J. Crowest, editor of a series of books entitled "The Great Masters," opens it himself with a biography of Beethoven, whom it has become customary to accept as the master of masters, though, to be sure, Bach and Handel surpassed him as choral writers, Weber, Wagner, and Bizet in the field of opera, Chopin and others in pianoforte music, Schubert, Franz, and others in lyric song, leaving him only the symphony in which to assert his supremacy. In view of the prevalent high opinion of Beethoven, it is rather strange that there has been hitherto no handy short volume telling English readers the story of his life and the most interesting things about his best-known compositions. This, Mr. Crowest has undertaken to do, and has succeeded very well, having taken his information from so many sources that even experts will here and there come across a fact or two new to them. Of special value to students are the appendices, especially the first, which gives a bibliography including not only books but magazine articles. Appendix B gives a list of the published works, chronologically arranged; C sums up the principal incidents in Beethoven's life, and D describes briefly the personages associated in any way with him.

The second volume in Mr. Crowest's series—'Wagner,' by Charles A. Lidgey—is not entitled to the same praise. The life of Wagner was so full of romantic incidents that it seems almost impossible to make an uninteresting story of it; yet the author has accomplished this remarkable feat in seventy-four pages. Nor are the chapters devoted to Wagner's art principles and operas any more interesting. They are mere compilations without any new points of view. This book, in brief, has no good *raison d'être.*

Admirers of Brahms will welcome the Recollections of Dietrich and Widmann, which together make up a sort of biographic mosaic including the years 1853 to 1896. Prof. Dietrich was an intimate friend of Brahms during the years when the latter was emerging into fame with the aid of Schumann, while Dr. Widmann accompanied the composer on several of his trips to Italy. A melancholy interest attaches to the pages describing the last days of Schumann, and the grief of the widow, who wrote to Dietrich two years after the composer's death: "People always say that time heals wounds; I do not find that true, for I feel the loss daily more painfully, and no longer know any happiness in life." From Brahms himself, notorious for his aversion to writing, Dietrich received a surprising number of letters, which he prints, though few of them present any points of interest. Not that Brahms lacked the brains to write an entertaining letter. Many of the details given in this volume prove his interest in other things besides music; but, like Chopin, he could not make up his mind to write a note, though he was indefatigable in writing "notes."

One of the oddest things in regard to Brahms is the contrast between his personality and his music. Nothing could be more austere, conventional, and devoid of humor than his compositions, whereas he himself was unconventional to the point of rudeness, and constantly playing pranks or cracking jokes. Dietrich relates how, "with the boisterousness of youth, he would run up my stairs, knock at my door with both fists, and, without awaiting a reply, burst into the room." His jokes were sometimes not understood, and gave offence; nor was his biting sarcasm relished by its victims. Widmann writes that "the short, square figure, the almost sandy-colored hair, the protruding under-lip which lent a cynical expression to the beardless and youthful face, was striking and hardly prepossessing." In later life, however, his face acquired an expression which reflected his strong mentality, and it is said that a school geography printed his head as a type of the Caucasian race. His only personal defect was that he was very near-sighted; yet he used to remark that this had its advantage because it allowed him to see many more beautiful women than those who had keener vision.

Among the most interesting pages in the book are those in which Brahms's operatic projects—which never came to anything—are described. Brahms, unlike Wagner, Verdi, and all other modern composers, believed in the old opéra-comique style, in which only the climax, and those parts of the action where words alone do not suffice, are set to music, the rest being spoken. At the same time, he had a high opinion of Wagner, calling himself one day, in the course of conversation, "the best of Wagnerites," and observing that his comprehension of the Wagnerian scores was probably more profound than that of any contemporary. Verdi, too, he admired, and once, when Bülow had spoken disparagingly of the "Requiem," Brahms said, "Bülow has made a fool of himself for all time; only a genius could have written that."

Miss Chapin's love of Wagner's operas is

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so absorbing that she cannot get away from them. To her 'Story of Rhinegold' and 'Wonder Tales from Wagner' she has now added a third book discussing "the divinity of Wotan, the humanity of Siegfried, and the divinity in humanity of Brünnhilde." Inasmuch as there are many who are as indefatigable in reading about Wagner as some are in writing about him, this last book of Miss Chapin's will doubtless be welcomed by such as like to look below the surface of things.

Mr. Runciman's 'Old Scores and New Readings' is a collection of entertaining papers on musical topics which must be cordially commended to the attention of all lovers of the art who like to be stimulated to thought, and are not afraid to be shocked once in a while by an opinion outrageously opposed to everything they have ever heard and believed. The author is one of the leaders among the new school of English critics who are making life a burden to Joseph Bennett and other veterans in the profession. Early in his career he involved the *Saturday Review* in a law suit by some indiscretion. That was six years ago, and he has since toned down a little; yet he is not afraid to refer, in the book now before us, to one of the English idols, the late eminent Macfarren, as "the worst enemy music has ever had" in England; and he will arouse much indignation by his remarks on the "Messiah." Not that he underrates that oratorio or its composer; he rather overrates them; but he tells his countrymen bluntly (and truly) that the real "Messiah" is practically unknown, and that its vogue in the provinces is due to the fact that it has become a Christmas institution, like plum pudding and mince pie. Greatly as he admires Handel—the real Handel—Mr. Runciman points out his enormous debt to Purcell, England's "last great musician" (1658-'95), and quotes with approval Burney's opinion that, "in the accent of passion, and expression of English words, the vocal music of Purcell is . . . as superior to Handel's as an original poem to a translation." Mr. Runciman's general attitude is well illustrated in the remark, anent the latest phase of German music, that "it is high time for a return to the simplicity of Mozart, of Handel, of our own Purcell; to dare, as Wagner dared, to write folk-melody, and to put it on the trombones at the risk of being called vulgar and rowdy by persons who do not know great art when it is original, but only when it resembles some great art of the past which they have learnt to know."

Perhaps the best of Mr. Runciman's twenty essays are those on six of Wagner's operas. They show much more true critical insight than the comments of any of the German essayists, be their name Hanslick, Ehlert, Ehrlich, Chamberlain, Porges, Wolzogen, or what not. He begins one of his essays with the statement that "'Lohengrin' has been sung scores of times at Covent Garden in one fashion or another; but I declare that we heard something resembling the real 'Lohengrin' for the first time when Mr. Anton Seidl crossed the Atlantic to conduct it and other of Wagner's operas. . . . Mr. Seidl came all the way from New York city to show us how out of sweetness can come forth strength"; and he specifies the reasons for this judgment. In the paper on "Siegfried" he remarks that "the music Siegfried has to sing is the richest, most copious stream of melody ever given to one artist"; and he has some eloquent pages regarding the scenic charms of these operas; closing with the words that, "had Wagner not lived in Switzerland, and gone his daily walks amongst the mountains, the 'Ring' might have been written; but certainly it would have been written very differently."

The real secret of Brahms's success Mr. Runciman has summed up in six pages better than any one else has done it. There are also interesting papers on Tchaikovsky, Haydn, Mozart, Schubert, "Fidelio," Verdi, "Italian Opera, Dead and Dying," Dvorák, Lamoreux and his orchestra, all of them worth reading and rereading, though justice is not done to Schubert and Dvorák.

FISKE'S DUTCH AND QUAKER COLONIES.

The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. 2 vols. Pp. xvi, 294, 400.

Mr. Fiske is building up in a leisurely way his series of works on American history, already reaching considerable proportions. Between the early period of colonization and settlement, treated in part in the 'Discovery of America,' 'Old Virginia and her Neighbors,' and the 'Beginnings of New England,' and the later period dealt with in the 'American Revolution' and the 'Critical Period,' there has been left as a gap in the series the story of the middle colonies, and of New France and the French and English rivalry. The first of these lacunæ has now been supplied by the two volumes on the Dutch and Quaker colonies; the second, carrying the narrative as a whole down to 1765, where the 'American Revolution' begins, Mr. Fiske hopes to fill in two years. When completed, the successive works will form a connected account of American history, from the discovery of the continent to the establishment of government under the Constitution.

The history of the middle colonies is not commonly thought of as, in the ordinary sense, particularly interesting. Not that there is an absence of interesting episodes or a lack of local color. About the Dutch life in New York, especially in its earlier years, there is not a little that is distinctive, and much that is picturesque. The simplicity and canniness of William Penn and his followers give to the annals of Pennsylvania an undoubted charm, different, at least, from anything to be found elsewhere. But aside from details, and taking the middle group as a whole, there is undeniably an impression among students, reflected in the works of historians themselves, that the time and place are not attractive. The story must be told, of course, but there is rarely much zest in either the telling or the hearing of it. There is no strenuous and long-continued moral struggle, as in New England, no growth of a dominant type of character out of peculiar social conditions, as in the South. In the early period, at least, there is a poverty of distinguished names. The very cosmopolitanism and many-sidedness of middle colony life, while often an agreeable relief from uniformity and monotony, make against individual prominence, and render the course of events less easy to follow.

Bearing in mind the limitations of his aim, it seems to us that Mr. Fiske has done all that a writer can do to make the story of the Dutch and Quaker colonies interesting, and to bring their history into vital touch with that of their neighbors to the north and south. For such a task, by no means easy, Mr. Fiske has certain preëminent qualifications. First of all a philosopher, he values the broad view. Truth means to him, in fact as well as in theory, an understanding of things in their relations; and events which, by most writers, are dealt with in isolation, are viewed by him as inseparably bound up with all that ever has been. He is never in a hurry to have done with a subject, never willing to leave it until he has turned upon it every ray of light, however remote, that he thinks can illumine it. This broad and deliberate character of his historical method is nowhere better exhibited than in the work before us. A chapter on the mediæval Netherlands, another on the Dutch influence upon England (with the author's respects to Douglas Campbell, of course), a third on Verrazzano and Henry Hudson, and a fourth on the Dutch West India Company—in all, nearly one-half of the first volume—are deemed necessary to explain the conditions and principles of Dutch colonization before we reach the time of the patroons, when the systematic exploitation of New Netherland begins. Similarly, fifty pages of volume ii. are devoted to tracing the career of William Penn down to the time when he obtained the grant of his province. Critics will certainly differ as to the wisdom of giving so much space, relatively speaking, to matters of this preliminary sort, and we ourselves can but think the allotment excessive; but there can be no question that the plan gives the reader a new and broadened view of the significance of the colonial experiments, and of the influences which, at the beginning, determined their course.

A further quality of Mr. Fiske's, and one which stands him in good stead in the present work, is his sympathy. His lively historic imagination, his power of realizing past events as having actually happened, gives to his personal appreciations a human character not always found in the pages of more learned historians. Stuyvesant, loyal servant of his masters, but constitutionally blinded to some of the most patent of the conditions which surrounded him, merits respect and kindly pity rather than condemnation. Kieft, with all his highhandedness, is almost as amusing as he is tyrannical. Leisler is an ignorant but not half-bad person, less an adventurer at heart than the victim of his own overweening conceit, and in the end, at least, mentally unstrung. The lovable side of Penn's character, and the peaceful course of his "holy experiment," have never been more sympathetically sketched. There is cordial recognition of Nicolls's ability, and a kindly word for the hated Andros. In short, whether we have here the whole story or not, there is no doubt but that the subjects of Mr. Fiske's investigations actually lived, walked and talked, had characters and aims like other men, and met the conditions which confronted them in pretty much the same way that men of similar character and station meet similar conditions now.

Then there is the question of literary merit. Whatever the worth of Mr. Fiske's books as critical historical studies, none will deny that they are, in the full and genuine sense of the word, literature. It would be

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superfluous to dwell again on the qualities of Mr. Fiske's writing—its perfect clearness and simplicity, its smoothness, its movement and sprightliness, its skilful alternation of grave and gay. It is not, we think, a style wholly without faults: Much public lecturing, we suspect, has tended to make it a bit diffuse, and opened the way for occasional pleasantries and trivialities which, however pleasing to a popular audience, jar a little when met with on the printed page. But it is, for all that, a style with character, distinction, and charm. It is a notable thing that in this day, when our younger historical scholars are so often warned against devoting precious time and space to questions of form and expression, the most popular of our historians should insist upon making history interesting, and spend his wealth of literary power in the serious business of historical exposition.

Yet, notwithstanding the undoubted interest of the whole performance, and its pervading impression of satisfactoriness, we nevertheless do not have here the whole story—nor always, if quantity alone be considered, even the larger part of it. It needs no exhaustive acquaintance with the field to make clear that a great many things happened of which Mr. Fiske's narrative takes either slight account, or none at all. The criticism, applicable to all of the author's historical works, finds renewed illustration in this his latest one. The account of Pennsylvania, for example, in the volumes before us, gives little indication of the controversies between the Proprietor and the colonists which, beginning soon after the colony was planted, gave form to much of its later history. The occasions of the successive frames of government are not clearly pointed out, nor more than a hint given of the changes introduced by each. There is no distinct impression of the history of New Jersey, save as that colony comes into collision with Andros, nor of Delaware, save as an unimportant appanage of Pennsylvania. In general, too, what we like to call "institutions" do not seem to appeal to Mr. Fiske. One will search his pages in vain for particular light *on the problems of government, administration*, and law, of land tenure, suffrage, and citizenship, which vexed the course of middle-colony history and formed the subjects of sharp political discussion. The same is true, in the main, of economic history. Doubtless, these are all prosaic matters, not very interesting to read, and often difficult to make clear in a limited space; but they were unquestionably vital issues, however overshadowed at times by more spectacular events; and they were potent influences in forming the tone and temper of colonial life. Mr. Fiske, however, takes a different course. He seizes upon leading incidents, always typical and important, but also always capable of vivid and stirring treatment; and to these he gives a picturesque and brilliant treatment. The resulting picture is true, the parts well grouped, and the general effect undeniably fine; but it must be confessed that a good deal of importance is left out which, if inserted, would sometimes make the picture less lovely to look upon.

Save in the respects already mentioned, the 'Dutch and Quaker Colonies' presents few points for detailed comment, and little occasion for differing from the author's judgments and critical estimates. Like all its predecessors, it does not impress one as primarily a work of erudition—partly, no doubt, because the wealth of first-hand information is so interestingly presented. But no one will get from them an erroneous impression of American history; and it is because Mr. Fiske knows whereof he speaks, and speaks because he has something to say, that his books are, especially for non-professional readers, such safe and inspiring guides. If the chief business of the historian is to add to the stock of available and sifted knowledge, and increase the load of fact which the human mind must somehow bear, Mr. Fiske's works must doubtless yield somewhat to others; but if the object be, rather, so to select and group facts as to make the past live again, their success must be admitted to be of a high order.

Animal and Plant Lore. Collected from the Oral Tradition of English-speaking Folk. Edited and annotated by Fanny D. Bergen, with an introduction by Joseph Y. Bergen. Published for the American Folk-Lore Society by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

Mrs. Bergen gives 1,397 sayings concerning animals and plants in their relations to weather signs, incantations, supposed remedial powers, and the like, placing after each number the name of the locality where some one has heard the utterance. Doubtless Mrs. Bergen possesses exact records of the authorities who have communicated to her these fragments of folk-lore, and we regret that she has not given these in her pages. Without such citation it is exceedingly difficult to make scientific use of the material she has so laboriously accumulated. Some of the geographical ranges appear to be too wide; for instance, "General in the United States" is frequently given. We should be glad to acquire exact information as to how many separate authorities in diverse localities have made identical contributions. In the absence of such data, it is impossible to trace the historical relations and the distribution as fully as is desirable. Since Mrs. Bergen must needs have these data, we earnestly urge her to publish them in a revised edition.

There is another change which should be suggested, namely, a more rigorous classification of the sayings. In such a revision, we should expect to find the following placed under the heading Folk-medicine, rather than under Omens, where they are now:

"140. Whooping-cough may be cured by binding about the neck of the diseased one some hair of a little girl that has never seen her father. Green Harbor, Mass.

"141. If a child has the thrush, and some one who has never seen his own father blows in its face (down its throat), the child will be cured. Salem, Ind., and Fort Worth, Tex."

Another on the same page is with difficulty classified, but we do not clearly see its relation to the heading Omens:

"145. Wish when you see a new-born calf."

Mrs. Bergen's notes are excellent. They supplement the sayings very largely, and point out a few of the relations of these curious phrases among our own people to the folk-sayings in other countries. And, lastly, we may say, before making a few citations, that the omissions which will occur to some of the readers of the book are very few, and perhaps Mrs. Bergen could give good reasons for them.

First, to illustrate the different and uncertain views taken in regard to omens:

"174. A black cat coming to the house is unlucky. Cape Breton and New Hampshire.

"175. It is good luck for a black cat to come to your house. Eastern Massachusetts and Pennsylvania.

"172. To be followed by a black cat signifies good luck. New England and Eastern Kansas.

"173. A black cat following you at night means bad luck. Eastern Mass.

"187. If a cat wash her face in front of several persons, the first person she looks at will be the first to get married. Alabama.

"188. The first person a cat looks at after washing its face will die sooner than any other bystander. [No locality noted.]"

From this it would appear that "folk" are rather undecided as to the real significance of cats.

Fingernails are almost as perplexing as cats, as the following citations show:

"750. Cut the baby's nails every Friday, and it will never have the toothache. [No locality cited.]

"751. If you cut off your fingernails on Friday, you will never have the toothache. [No locality cited.]"

But observe how the next, which is assigned to Chester, N. H., puts us all at sea again:

"752. Cut your nails on Friday, and you will have toothache."

Of course, it is among the negroes that we find some of the most startling beliefs treasured in folk-sayings:

"759. If you lose a tooth, you will have to search for it on the Day of Judgment. Alabama (negro).

"742. If you lose a hair, you will have to search for it on the Day of Judgment. Alabama (negro).

"51. After a death in the house, change the position of the door-knob, so that the ghost may not find his way in. Norfolk, Va. (negro).

"993. Jay-birds are on duty in hell every third day. They go as messengers to tell of backsliders, etc., to the devil. Heaven's no place for them. Chestertown, Md. (negro).

"915. White people are descendants of Cain. All mankind was once black, but when the Lord asked Cain where Abel was, Cain turned white with fright, and so remained. Chestertown, Md. (negro)."

Enough citations have been given to indicate that in this book Mrs. Bergen has brought together certain fragments of common speech which, with the additional data for which we ask, might be of use in tracing out the paths by which certain folk have wandered through the world. We hope that collections like this of Mrs. Bergen may stimulate even unobservant persons to record faithfully the few folk-sayings which may still linger in their neighborhood.

Letters of David Ricardo to Hutches Trower and Others, 1811-1823. Edited by James Bonar, LL.D., and J. H. Hollander, Ph.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Much has been done during the last few years by the publication of Ricardo's correspondence to make the great economist a more human figure to our imagination. The present publication will do even more in this direction than the letters to Malthus, edited by Dr. Bonar in 1887, or the letters to McCulloch, edited by Professor Hollander in 1896. Not only do they cover a greater variety of topics, and deal, as the editors remark, almost as much with Ireland, savings banks, and Queen Caroline as with pure economics and finance, but Ricardo here "lets himself go" with greater freedom, and sometimes even jests

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—"with difficulty," it is true, but still he manages it. To do it, he actually condescends to echo the current misrepresentation of Malthus. "Our Princes," he writes in 1817, "have certainly not refrained from marriage from a consideration of Malthus's prudential check. If they had, . . . we might expect that the great demand for Royal infants would be followed by so ample a supply as to occasion a glut." This is elephantine playfulness. And these letters show that Ricardo was not devoid of the æsthetic sense. From Antwerp he writes: "To see the Descent from the Cross by Rubens is alone worth all the trouble of a journey from London"; and it is interesting to see how naturally his artistic appreciation expresses itself in the language of value.

On economic doctrine these letters do but repeat the arguments and explanations addressed elsewhere to Malthus and others. Like these, they raise a question on which there prevails a certain ambiguity, which the editor's introduction will hardly clear up. What is to be called "the doctrine" of a writer? His statement in a formal treatise, interpreted according to the ordinary meaning of the words, and so understood by contemporaries? or a version of that statement which introduces all the qualifications that he left out, and that subsequent criticism made him acknowledge? Surely, both views are necessary, and the former as much as the latter; for if the latter is required for the understanding of the man, the former is required for the understanding of his influence. It might be suggested that the time has come for an edition of Ricardo's Principles which shall print at the foot of the page Ricardo's explanations of his meaning as given in his correspondence. It would probably show that the difficulty with Ricardo often lay in his use of terms and not in his deductions. There is a significant passage here where he remarks (p. 113): "By the very definition of natural price, it is wholly dependent on cost of production, and has nothing to do with demand and supply." Of course, if natural price is defined as dependent on cost of production only, the conclusion as to demand and supply is not a conclusion at all, but another way of saying the same thing. Ricardo regrets that "the progress of the science" of political economy "is very much impeded by the contrary ideas which men attach to the word value." To put it mildly, Ricardo did not do anything to secure unanimity.

The volume before us, the joint work of the Secretary of H. M. Civil Service Commission and of a professor in the Johns Hopkins University, is a pleasing illustration of that growing coöperation between English and American scholars of which the recent publication of a Cornell professor's edition of Petty by the Cambridge University Press is another example.

How Women May Earn a Living. By Helen Churchill Candee. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

A woman who has been trained from her youth up, as many women now are trained, to the practice of some art, profession, trade, or handicraft, will probably find the title of this book more comprehensive than the contents warrant. In general, the earner contemplated is she who has neither training nor considerable capital; and the dedication, "To all those women who labor through necessity and not caprice," betrays a curious confusion of economic ideas. The notion that women who hold sufficient property to live on its income, or who are supported by the property or exertions of others, are committing an injustice by undertaking paid work, involves a socialistic proposition which those who hold the notion would be slow to extend, as it should logically be extended, to include the case of men. Unless we are willing to say that no millionaire should be president of a university or member of the cabinet, we cannot exhaustively divide workers for hire into those inspired by necessity and those inspired by "caprice." The man or woman who can do the work best is the person who, in the interests of the community, should do it.

Moreover, every one who has had to do with the administration of concerted work, in philanthropic or other enterprises, where volunteers are employed, knows the nuisances attending the presence of unpaid service. If it be argued that such fields are precisely those which the rich should use their leisure to cultivate without hire, it must be rejoined that the receipt of a fee, however unimportant its money value to the recipient, secures from the average worker an added punctuality of service and sense of business responsibility, while its payment confirms in the director the power of unembarrassed suggestion and control. These facts are peculiarly true of women. The steadying effect on a well-meaning rich woman of obliging her to receive payment for her work, is often such as to remove completely from her mental attitude the stigma of "caprice." These considerations have been overlooked by the author of the work under discussion.

Having realized, however, that the book is chiefly an antiseptic for the use of gentlewomen threatened with decay, the reader will find it thoroughly well done. A clear, brisk style has been used to set forth facts and advice which the experience of most working-women will endorse. Amid a well-chosen array of illuminating details, the fundamental moral qualities necessary for successful work are never lost sight of. The would-be earner is reminded again and again that she need not despair though she have not training or experience or capital or influence, but that capacity she must have. The unity of treatment secured by the discussion by the same author of all the subjects treated, gives the treatise a superiority over collections of papers by different hands, and ample notice is served on the reader that special treatment of each branch of activity must be sought for in its own literature. Though all are excellent, the chapters on "The Ideal Boarding-House," on "Architecture and Interiors," and on "The Out-of-Town Woman" may perhaps be singled out as most fully showing the common sense, candor, and intelligence which form the character of the book.

Outlines of Military Geography. By T. Miller Maguire, LL.D., of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law; Lieutenant, Inns of Court Rifle Volunteers. [Cambridge, Eng., Geographical Series.] The Macmillan Co. 8vo, pp. 359, with maps, plans, etc.

The zeal of the English volunteers is well shown by this handsome volume, which is a convenient compilation from a wide examination of authorities in various languages, from nearly all parts of the world. After a brief presentation of the leading principles of strategy, the author considers the application of these to geography, and the necessary relations between geographical knowledge and the conduct of campaigns. To an English writer the Command of the Sea is a subject of capital importance, and this, including the special strategical importance of the Mediterranean, is treated in several chapters. Then follows the study of Frontiers in their relation to military operations, of fortifications as related to geography, of routes of invasion, of roads and defiles, of historic lines of invasion, ancient and modern, with interesting comments on their frequent identity. A chapter on the effects of climate completes the work.

Strategy is, of course, so closely connected with both geography and local topography that all strategic study is geographical. Yet Mr. Maguire's book so gathers together brief sketches from campaigns in all parts of the world that an approximate classification of geographical conditions results, and the student is both stimulated and guided in geographical study as an essential of military art. Examples of the embarrassments and losses resulting from neglect or insufficient mastery of geographical knowledge are strongly presented; prominent among these being the inferior preparation of the French in this department of training in 1870.

The lessons of our civil war are much more frequently referred to than is usual with European writers. This is not always done with fully digested knowledge, but many of the references are very apt. On page 206, however, the first bombardment of Fort Fisher on the North Carolina coast (December 24, 1864) is mistakenly made part of the attack upon Vicksburg on the Mississippi, nearly two years earlier.

Browning, Poet and Man: A Survey. By Elisabeth Luther Cary. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is easy enough to call a book sumptuous, but that much abused epithet is really not wasted on the mechanical execution of Miss Cary's 'Browning.' Like Dr. Hale's 'James Russell Lowell and his Friends,' it is sure to be bought for its illustrations, had it no other value. To have in one volume eight different portraits of Robert Browning taken at different periods of life and by a variety of artists and methods, is a pleasure before denied to his admirers. To these are added, most appropriately, four of the sketches and caricatures made by the poet's father; also portraits, more or less appropriate, of Tennyson, Morley, Carlyle, and Lord Sherbrooke; the familiar likeness of Mrs. Browning; ten pictures of places identified with Browning's life or mentioned in his poems, and a reproduction of the curious pair of designs which appeared in the London *Sketch*, giving the poet's own idea of the 'Pied Piper.' To these must be added full-page engravings of Guercino's 'Guardian Angels' and Fra Lippo Lippi's 'Coronation of the Virgin,' with its endless array of interesting heads. This is a great deal; but, after all, the chief interest of the book lies in the series of portraits, ranging from the conventionalized and Byronic one, taken in

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Browning's youth, very familiar years ago to the readers of Horne's 'Spirit of the Age'—through the self-conscious pose of Lehmann's picture in the National Portrait Gallery, the distorted outlines of Alexander, the over-florid painting by the poet's son, representing the father in his academical robes, and the somewhat obtrusively cheery *Art Journal* picture in middle life—to the wholly simple and natural photograph, taken in old age, of Browning sitting in the open air with his hat on. Were there nothing else in the book but this series of pictures, one might say that no lover of the poet could well go without it.

When we turn to the letter-press, one cannot speak so unreservedly. In this respect the book must be pronounced faithful and conscientious, representing a good deal of labor with the pen and sometimes with the scissors; also free from pettiness or undue briskness, and bringing together a great deal of information, if not adding much. Some of its summaries of character, as that on page 119, are extremely good, and there are excellent *obiter dicta*, as where the author speaks (p. 111) of "the curious temper of acquiescence that almost invariably enters into Browning's conception of heroism," or of Browning's "invariable premise that life is worth while" (p. 131), or of the "pagan serenity of the natural world" as seen in Wordsworth (p. 135); or where she describes the mind of Louis Napoleon as "obscure, contradictory, and elusive" (p. 147). These indicate in the author a mind more penetrating and original than the ordinary execution of the book exhibits. But the work as a whole is of decided value, and to the average reader it will afford more pleasure, in all probability, than any single volume yet produced in respect to Browning.

Picture Study in Elementary Schools: Manual for Teachers, Parts I. and II. Pupil's Book, Parts I. and II. By L. L. W. Wilson, Author of 'Nature Study in Elementary Schools,' etc. Macmillan Co. 1900.

These little books are in so far welcome as they show a growing realization of the educational value of art, and a tendency among teachers to introduce the study of art (not the study of drawing, which is a very different thing) into elementary schools. We wish we could say that the books themselves are well done, but we cannot. The idea is excellent, but the execution is inferior.

The idea is briefly this. The Pupil's Book provides four or five pictures for each month of the school year, each a reproduction of some well-known work of art, and accompanied merely by some short prose or verse quotation. An attempt is made to provide a natural arrangement of subjects with some reference to the time of year. The small pictures in the book are intended to be supplemented by at least one large picture each month, of a size to be seen by the whole class, and to become a permanent decoration for the school-room. All comment and instruction is to be supplied by the teacher, and the Manual is intended to provide suggestions for such instruction and references for further study by the teacher.

The first thing to be considered in the execution of such a plan is the selection of the pictures for reproduction, and in the present case this may be praised in so far as there are many good pictures chosen, and few or no positively bad ones. But this is not enough. The very best is none too good for the child, and it would be perfectly possible to replace many of the mediocre pictures here given by works of the highest order of merit, which should be equally interesting in subject, and infinitely more valuable in the unconscious education of taste. One instance will show what we mean as well as a dozen. Hofmann's very popular but very cheap and meretricious picture of "Christ among the Doctors" is one of those given. Luini's noble painting of the same subject in the National Gallery is equally available from every point of view as to subject and treatment, and incomparably better as art. Why fob the child off with Hofmann, when he might have Luini? Salvator's "Diogenes in Search of an Honest Man" is a picture so ugly that, to our mind, it should have been excluded, but if it was to be given, why is it reproduced from an engraving rather than from the original? It is not the only case in these books of this unjustifiable proceeding, and we must repeat that the children have a right to the best, not only in art, but in reproduction. Engravings, especially old ones, are notoriously unfaithful, and should never be shown to beginners where a reproduction from the original can be had. If no good direct reproduction is available, it would be better to omit the picture entirely. The present author is not so bitten with the mania for "grading" as some other educators. She quotes two courses, proposed by the State Director of Drawing of Massachusetts and by the Director of Drawing of Boston, in each of which there are five "Primary Grades" and four "Grammar Grades," all, presumably, arranged on some theory of progression. Mrs. Wilson is content with the separation of the pictures into two sets, Part I. for the primary schools, and Part II. for grammar schools; but even so we cannot discover the system on which the choice is made. Why is Adam's "Cat Family" a picture for primary scholars, and Mme. Ronner's cat picture, "A Fascinating Tale," one for grammar-school pupils? Or in what way is Boughton's "Return of the *Mayflower*" more fitted for advanced study than is his very similar "Pilgrim Exiles"? Of the two we should have said that the presence of the ship in the first-named picture rendered it the easier of comprehension. Only in the postponement to the second part of such old masters as Lionardo, Michelangelo, and Veronese, and of such moderns as Burne-Jones and Sargent—that is, of such painters as are more artistic than popular—do we seem to get a glimpse of system.

Many of the quotations in the Pupil's Books are pretty and appropriate, but many of them are the reverse of appropriate. To mention only a few of those we had marked: "Come to the sunset tree" as appended to a picture of mid-day (Bastien's "Hay Harvest"); "Where the pools are bright and deep," to a picture of street gamins ("The Meeting," by Marie Bashkirtseff); Shelley's "Swiftly walk over the western wave, Spirit of Night!" applied to one of Fra Angelico's angels; "A creature not too bright or good for human nature's daily food," as a motto to the "Mona Lisa"; and "More water glideth by the mill Than wots the miller of," as a comment on the picture of a *wind*-mill (Rembrandt), are singularly inept.

But it is, after all, in the Manuals for Teachers that the faults and errors are most important. That the pictures selected, their reproduction, and the mottoes appended to them should not all be of the best is regrettable; that the teachers who are to expound should themselves be mistaught is lamentable. Yet these notes for the instruction of the teacher are crammed with errors and blunders of greater or less magnitude. They are not all of the author's making, it is true, but the author is responsible for her choice of quotations and her application of them, as for her original matter. It may have been John Ruskin who said that Rembrandt was a "man of the world," "never in earnest," and "would have mocked the idea of a spirit," but it is Mrs. Wilson who has put this down for the guidance of the bewildered primary teacher. Walter Cranston Larned may have been justified in representing Dr. Tulp as surprised at Rembrandt's audacity in conceiving of "The Anatomy Lesson," for Mr. Larned was writing 'A Romance of Holland'; but Mrs. Wilson should have known that such pictures were common, and that Dr. Tulp got just what he ordered. And when remarks which Muther has made about C. F. Ulrich are quoted as referring to L. Passini, only because that name occurs on the same page, the blunder is surely Mrs. Wilson's own. She has also a weakness for the apocrypha of art. Here again her responsibility is indirect, for the stories are not of her invention, but she should not have retold them in a book of this kind without a warning of their nature. The silly tale of the vinedresser's daughter and the barrel-head, which was invented to account for the circular shape of the "Madonna of the Chair," is incredible to those who know the frequency of the *tondo* in Renaissance art; but how many school-teachers are of this number? And these tales also are occasionally decorated with new incredibilities surely of the present author's invention. If Van Dyck deceived Rubens by his retouching of a picture which he had accidentally damaged, the picture was certainly not one painted years before he entered Rubens's studio; and if he ever painted a portrait of Franz Hals, he did not transport the latter to Rome for that purpose.

Besides the above, there is a plentiful crop of errors in these books for which it is difficult to find any excuse or to imagine any origin. When we hear of Bastien's "study of his 'Grandfather, the Fagot-Gatherer,' called 'Père Jacque,'" the printer may be in fault, and a change of quotation-marks would set things right; to make Zuber a German and give his name a superfluous umlaut, is a venial sin; it would have been better not to give the Redentore Madonna as an example of Bellini without a caution that its authenticity is gravely questioned—but this may pass. What, however, shall we say of the astounding statement that Guido Reni was in the habit of "copying, with small changes, his women from the Venus of Milo" discovered in 1820? Or of the confusion which attributes to Jules Dupré two pictures by *Julian* Dupré, and gives a brief biography of the former, a quotation or two, and references to books on art, all of which have no more to do with the painter of these pictures than with Michelangelo or Artaxerxes?

We have given more space to these books than they deserve because they come from a good publisher, and might, therefore, be taken seriously, and because they illustrate

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the great danger of much of our attempted education, the teaching of that which is unknown to the teacher. Our school-teachers are expected to teach a little of everything; and as they do not know these things, they must "get them up" in a hand-book. Moreover, as the person who has conceived the idea of the hand-book does not know the subject either, he also "gets it up" as best he can. He compiles something, somehow, not knowing good authorities from bad, or how to verify facts or judge of the value of criticisms; and to the farrago he has got together he adds various blunders and misunderstandings of his own. Thus we get a "Manual for Teachers!" and thus is the teacher taught. Most artists have met with the would-be pupil who "only wants to learn enough to teach." It seems as if that modicum were becoming steadily smaller.

Italy and her Invaders. Vol. VII. Frankish Invasions. Vol. VIII. The Frankish Empire. By Thomas Hodgkin. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

With these volumes, Dr. Hodgkin completes the great work of which he issued the first part nearly twenty years ago. He pursues the method which he adopted in the beginning, of tracing the story of each tribe up to the time when it came to interfere directly in the affairs of Italy, and then to describe in detail its influence on Italy's development. The work is thorough, scholarly, and as lucid as it is possible to make it, considering the fewness of extant sources. Fair-minded is an epithet which Dr. Hodgkin certainly deserves, and the quality it represents is required at many points, for the period covered by these two volumes saw the rise of institutions from which Europe has hardly yet shaken herself free, and over which the bitterest controversies have raged. To understand the history of modern Europe one must go back beyond the French Revolution, and the Reformation, and the Crusades, to the fateful eighth century, when the Bishop of Rome expanded into the spiritual autocrat of Western Christendom, with the temporal Papacy already in sight, and when the warrior chief of a German tribe put on what was believed to be the very crown of Imperial Rome.

The description of these momentous transformations makes this the most interesting part of Dr. Hodgkin's work. Speaking with due qualification, we may say that it was the mission of the earlier invaders—the Goths and Huns and Lombards—to break up the Roman Empire and to destroy the highest civilization that Western Europe had known. With the supremacy of the Franks, on the contrary, the constructive forces more than matched the destructive, and a new civilization, a composite of Roman reminiscences and barbarian novelties, gradually emerged from the chaos of dissolution. Unfortunately, unless records now unknown shall hereafter come to light, there will never be a full chronicle of this transformation. Nevertheless, the records that exist enable us to get a general survey, and, what is equally important, to discern the features of the four or five great figures of the age. The two popes, Zacharias and Hadrian, the two Byzantine sovereigns, Constantine V. and Irene, and Charlemagne, who towers above them all, become, through Dr. Hodgkin's skilful resuscitation, persons whose characteristics we recognize as human. Most of the others are simply generic types of ecclesiastics or war-lords, so few are the individual touches which remain of them. We doubt whether Dr. Hodgkin himself could distinguish between Charles Martel and Pippin if he were to see an eighth-century Frankish king suddenly turn the corner.

These volumes convey admirably the impression that many of the steps which led up to the formal establishment of the Frankish Empire and its relations with the Popes were almost unpremeditated. In view of the gaps in the records, no honest historian would be justified in hinting at a long-prepared, definite policy; although, needless to say, more than one writer of history, especially among the partisans of the Papacy, has tried to demonstrate a continuity which the facts do not warrant. The Bishop of Rome acknowledged in theory the suzerainty of the Eastern Emperors long after these exercised any real power in Italy. Between Gregory the Great and Zacharias, pope after pope reigned precariously at Rome, with no more far-reaching purpose than to defend the Holy City against turbulent neighbors. Then came, gradually and very naturally, the plan of creating in Italy a papal kingdom that should unite the various "patrimonies" which had been acquired by the successors of St. Peter; and henceforth we find continuity, unbroken down to our day. The appeals of the eighth-century popes to be confirmed and defended in their temporal power might have been written by Pius IX. or Leo XIII., so inveterate is the clerical instinct never to let go worldly possessions. The one unpardonable sin was the invasion or seizure of papal lands. Even heresy could be condoned, but this could not. Pope Hadrian, for instance, declares that if the Eastern Emperor "fails to restore its patrimonies to the Holy Roman Church, we shall decide him to be a heretic for thus obstinately persevering in his old error" (viii., 19).

Dr. Hodgkin has chosen the best way of handling these questions on which men will never agree; he simply quotes, or summarizes, the important passages in the original documents. He holds throughout the attitude of the historian, not that of the Protestant, and consequently he does not attribute to Catholic dogmas iniquities which inhere in theocratic government of whatever creed and in a semi-civilized society. His analysis of that tremendous fraud, the Donation of Constantine, which began to be circulated towards the end of the eighth century in support of papal claims, is a model of fairness; in it he wastes no words in denunciation, but shows how the forger may have believed that he was performing a pious act, and how the first popes who cited it may have been deceived by it. That it was a forgery must have been unknown to many generations of ecclesiastics before Valla exposed it in the fifteenth century.

Concerning the coronation of Charlemagne by Leo III., on Christmas Day, 800, Dr. Hodgkin, after a minute sifting of the evidence, concludes that the Frankish King never meant by that act to acknowledge the Pope as his suzerain. That was the interpretation put on it by the Church, and converted by her into a precedent which remained in vigor for many centuries, but it seems most probable that Charles regarded the coronation just as his father Pippin had regarded his own anointing, as a sign of friendliness and not as an admission of inferiority. The Church used the precedent for her own aggrandizement, but the most ambitious pontiff could not in the year 800 have foreseen what the fantastic novelty, the Holy Roman Empire, which he had conjured into being, would amount to. Neither was so shrewd and masterful a conqueror as Charlemagne likely to surrender any of his prerogatives for a vague title, or to consent wittingly to an act which should diminish his power.

The most entertaining portions of these volumes are naturally those in which Dr. Hodgkin describes Charlemagne's family and court life, which he contrasts with the Byzantine court under Irene and her son. Einhard's biography, and the literary remains of Angilbert, Theodulf, Alcuin, Paulus Diaconus, and Peter of Pisa, supply material for a vivid picture; but when he compares this Frankish renaissance with that which came to pass six centuries later in Italy, we feel that in the intrinsic value of its literary and art products the former cannot bear such a comparison at all. Einhard, Alcuin, and Angilbert were remarkable when measured by the half barbaric environment out of which they sprang; but they left no work of permanent worth. The fire of culture kindled by them sank and went out within a score of years. Nevertheless, if it be possible to attribute to their revival of Latin culture Charlemagne's ambition to revive the Roman Empire, then we can agree with Dr. Hodgkin that the Renaissance at Aachen had an immense influence; only, the influence was political and not literary nor artistic.

We cannot take leave of this work without a final word of praise. The brilliant epochs will always attract historians; it is Dr. Hodgkin's distinction to have presented, for the first time in English, a complete history of an important but obscure and uncongenial period. He has mastered all the original sources, and, what is a still heavier task, all that German scholarship has written about them, with the result that, unless much new material shall hereafter turn up, his work is not likely to be superseded. His style is clear, even, and unmannered. Every statement he makes gives evidence of having been carefully weighed. He has not only investigated such minute questions as the sites of ancient places, but has visited most of the localities he describes. If there are dry passages in the course of his volumes, this is due to the lack of authentic information, and not to any defect in himself. He could never, like Freeman, inflate six or seven pages of facts into sixty pages of conjectures and facts, and pass them off as history. He has the satisfaction granted to few scholars of bringing to a successful end the work of twenty-five years.

Modern Land Law. By Edward Jenks. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

It seems ungracious to dismiss a work on which so much labor has been expended as on this without somewhat extended comment; but the nature of the subject is such as to interest but a small class of readers, and that class is to be found almost exclusively in England. Even at the time of the Revolution, the land law of this coun-

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try was starting on a different course of development from that of the parent state, and since that time the two systems have been entirely independent. If not for a century, certainly for half that period, the land laws of our States have been modified with very little regard for English examples and tendencies, and perhaps generally in ignorance of modern English statutes. In fact, our State Legislatures have paid comparatively little attention to one another's proceedings, and while New York has largely reconstructed her system, neighboring States, like New Jersey and Connecticut, have ignored her example. Under these circumstances, not many American lawyers are likely to interest themselves in the details of the changes in a system which has now become practically altogether distinct from our own.

Nevertheless, we can conceive the scholarly young lawyer, fresh from his Blackstone, taking a keen delight in tracing the later development of the wonderful law which that great writer so lucidly expounded. Whoever has felt curiosity to know how that extraordinary relic of feudalism could be adapted to the conditions and requirements of modern business, can do no better than study Mr. Jenks's pages. He will not find the stately periods of Blackstone, nor the graceful fluency of Kent; but he will find a skill in compressed and lucid exposition which approaches closely to the ideal style of a scientific legal treatise. Mr. Jenks does not deal with origins and antiquities except so far as is necessary to explain institutions which are an outgrowth of them. He has attempted, and, in our judgment, with great success, to state the result of the authorities, rather than the authorities themselves; "to combine authority and commentary in clear language." And he has also endeavored successfully to give his matter a logical arrangement.

For the reasons which we have assigned we cannot criticise his work in detail. That, indeed, can be fairly attempted only in the professional reviews. But we do not hesitate to say to lawyers who like to take broad views of their profession, that they will find this book extremely interesting and suggestive. Were our legislators worthy of their title, we should say that they would regard such a treatise as an indispensable aid; but probably few of them would appreciate it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Family Worship. Edited by W. R. Nicoll. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Alma-Tadema, L. The Fate-Spinner. London: E. B. Mortlock.
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